

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF STUDENT TEACHING

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ADAMS DICKEY Basic Principles of Student Teaching
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Preface

THE INCREASING demand for teachers is twofold. First, more teachers are urgently needed because of the ever-increasing number of children to be educated. Second, the public is demanding better-prepared teachers for today's schools. This book, dealing as it does with one of the most important aspects of teacher education, is based upon the concept that the preparation of teachers is truly a professional task. (Teachers are measured by their ability to practice their profession successfully; they must have control of the knowledge and principles upon which their practice is based. Adequate control of knowledge and principles is developed in students through planned experiences under capable guidance and direction. A student-teaching experience which is effective must be a co-operative venture involving the student, the supervising teacher, and the representatives of the institutions which make provision for the program.) *Basic Principles of Student Teaching* is directed primarily to the student teacher and indirectly to the supervising teacher and the institutional personnel involved.

The skills, competencies, and understandings embodied in the Principles set forth in this book are those which all teachers must have if they are to be effective in their teaching, regardless of the grade level at which they teach or the field in which they specialize. Teachers of the primary, intermediate, upper, or high school grades are guided and directed by the same basic principles of teaching and learning. Just as there are basic principles of teaching, so are there basic principles of *learning to teach*, for learning to teach is as much a process of learning as is learning any other skill or process.

The Principles of this book are listed consecutively in numerical order for ease of reference; they have been grouped under appropriate headings represented by chapter titles. The principles of student teaching included in the text have been illustrated through the use of many everyday occurrences in actual situations. Some of the examples have emerged from the experiences of the authors. Others have been contributed by some of the thousands of students and supervising teachers who have

engaged in student-teaching experiences. In deference to the many persons concerned, it has not always seemed wise to denominate in each illustration.

In organizing the book, the authors have constantly attempted to keep in mind those factors which will make the materials more useful to the students and teachers. It is suggested that considerable time be devoted to a thorough study of the "Action Approaches," which have been developed to give direction to the study of certain problems. (Student teaching is essentially a learning activity. Since learning is an active process, and takes place through the activity and experience of the learner (the student teacher in this instance), student teaching must be an *action* program) Through the study of the "Action Approaches," the thinking of the reader will be oriented to the concepts presented in the accompanying chapters.

(One of the foremost concerns of the instructor and the student should be the means through which the principles of student teaching may be made meaningful in actual situations) "Action Pointers" are provided which will be of value to both the individual and the group in translating into action the ideas embodied in the various chapters.

The problems and exercises presented at the end of each chapter are designed to assist the student in moving from theory into action and to help in evaluating the progress of the students.

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H.P.A. F.G.D.

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BASIC
PRINCIPLES OF
STUDENT
TEACHING

ACTION APPROACH

1. *In what ways is student teaching different from other college courses as these are usually conceived?*
2. *Why is a gradual introduction to the problems and processes of teaching a desirable factor in student teaching?*
3. *How can research and experimentation contribute to effective student teaching experiences?*
4. *In what respects does the preparation of a person for a profession differ from the preparation of a nonprofessional worker?*
5. *How can criticism be helpful to the student teacher?*
6. *In what ways should the school serve society?*
7. *Through what channels does society make contributions to the school?*
8. *Why is a philosophy of life and a philosophy of education necessary to the student of teaching?*
9. *How does a student develop a working definition of education?*
10. *What is meant by the term "interaction"?*

I.

CREATING A SETTING FOR STUDENT TEACHING

STUDENT teaching should be considered by the prospective teacher to be different from other college courses as usually conceived. That is to say, the student of teaching should not approach the experience of student teaching by expecting to attend formal classes in which the usual lecture, laboratory, or recitation activities take place, and in which textbook assignments are made and learned and then repeated from memory. Absent from modern functional student teaching is the usual dependence of student upon instructor for planning the course, outlining material to be learned, assigning lessons and laboratory

the culminating and integrating experiences in actual student teaching. If the prospective teacher is to gain the broader point of view necessary for successful teaching, it would seem advisable to create opportunities for him to develop sociological and psychological insights, a knowledge of procedures of teaching, and numerous other abilities and skills. Although it is extremely important that these skills and understandings be closely inter-related, still it is virtually impossible to crowd the development of all of them into one semester—or even one year—of college work. Furthermore, teacher education cannot and must not be viewed as the “frosting” which can be added to the “cake” after the liberal arts program has been completed. The most effective programs are those which relate and integrate professional education and the liberal arts, permitting each to supplement the other while the teacher is developing.

Although there are numerous patterns for teacher-education programs, the most successful and most soundly constructed programs usually introduce professional experiences at the freshman or sophomore levels; thus prospective teachers may have ample opportunities to develop understandings permitting maximum use of all courses and activities. Teaching is a continuous series of relationships; only when students are able to develop relationships in their own programs, can they become fully cognizant of the significance of such an experience.

2. *Content in Teacher Education Is Developed from Research and Experimentation Basic to Effective Teaching.*

The disposition to search constantly for new approaches to problems and for appropriate evidence in support of new propositions is a mark of intelligence necessary in the field of education. The subject matter of teacher education changes rapidly because research and experimentation are constantly being channeled into teaching. No longer must the teacher necessarily depend on purely subjective information touching

experiments, hearing recitations, conducting discussions, and testing the students' accomplishment.

Modern student teaching demands an almost diametric approach by the student, because it is an entirely different activity from the type just described. A functional program of student teaching offers a challenge to the student teacher of acquiring an understanding of the fundamental teaching-learning process, a knowledge of the problems of actual teaching, and a mastery of the skill of directing the learning of boys and girls. The contemporary student of teaching meets such a challenge through a positive orientation involving his attitude toward teaching in general, his concept of student teaching, and his activities as a student. He takes the initiative in planning, outlining, and conducting various activities rather than expecting the supervising teacher or college co-ordinator of student teaching to assume all such responsibility. He is, or he should be, a mature student who recognizes some of his important needs as a prospective teacher and reveals them to his instructors. Moreover, he assumes the responsibility for seeing that his needs, whether felt or revealed, are satisfied by participating fully in various types of activities designed for or initiated by him.

1. Teacher Education Is a Long-Term Experience.

Although various advocates of the "one-shot" approach to teacher education appear from time to time, serious students of teacher preparation recognize that experiences in teacher education are most effective when developed in a continuous sequence predicated on increasing understandings. The preference for long-term programs is in part the result of recent research projects in psychology which have pointed toward the advantage of spaced learning.

Most programs of teacher preparation have been developed as a gradual introduction to the problems and processes of teaching. New understandings are acquired as a result of previous insights and learnings, and all curricular experiences aim toward

The professional experience of student teaching is designed to demonstrate educational theory in practice and aid the student to develop practical skill from the theory learned. It may be defined as a directed learning experience during which a student becomes increasingly responsible for guiding and directing a group of learners. This implies that the activity is essentially a teaching-learning situation in which the student teacher is truly regarded as a "student of teaching" by his "teacher"—the supervising teacher, or critic teacher, as he is sometimes called. Thus, student teaching is a very complex activity—as complicated as are teaching and learning—and its primary purpose is to facilitate the growth of the student through a professional learning experience.

Demonstrating the application of theory learned calls for a high degree of creativity on the part of both student and supervising teacher. Activities and experiences included in the teaching program must be carefully chosen, with attention focused upon the fact that the student teacher is a "student of teaching"—a learner. Variety and flexibility are necessary to ensure provision for individual differences of students. Initiative and originality may be encouraged through a multi-phased program of work with boys and girls. Continuity and unity of experience tend to integrate the different phases of the work as the student progresses. However, even though the program of student teaching is planned primarily for the student teacher, it must also consider the welfare of the pupils who are to be taught by him. Finally, the program strives to build a wholesome professional attitude by considering the readiness of the student for the experience of teaching and through applying democratic processes in dealing with him.

4. The Primary Aim of Student Teaching Is to Help Student Teachers Become Self-directive.

To prescribe rigid formulations for the student to follow can be a threat to development and usually results in mediocre

upon many subjects. This is not to say that all problems in education have a quantitative answer—one which may be derived completely and absolutely through research techniques. Indeed, there are still many problems to be solved, and, because the human element with its many individual differences is intimately involved in the educational process, it is quite possible that some problems will remain unanswered for some time. Meanwhile, it is encouraging to note that research in such fields as social studies, reading, spelling, science, arithmetic, and music can now furnish the answers to many heretofore unsolved educational problems. It is now possible, for example, to work experimentally with boys and girls in a way that reading difficulties may be isolated and remedial action be taken. In like manner, it is possible to utilize new methods in the teaching of music which produce much better results.

One of the most important of the emerging concepts relative to teacher education holds research in a position of high importance, and the student teacher who completes his preparatory work in an institution which subscribes to this view is indeed fortunate. The day of the "fly-by-night," "guess-and-by-golly" practitioner in education is rapidly passing; the critical mind is now essential on the part of any teacher or educational worker.

3. Student Teaching Is a Professional Experience.

In general, to debate whether theory or practice is more important would be to quibble and, thus, to waste valuable time and force. To maintain, as has been done, that both theory and practice are necessary and interdependent elements in a modern program of teacher education is but to assert an acknowledged truth. Theory without ultimate practical application is educational jargon, and practice without sound theory behind it becomes empty, time-serving activity. Again, theory is no better than the practice it implies and regulates, and practice can be no stronger than the theory upon which it is based.

music enabled Betty to overcome her weakness. In the course of time, Betty became as proficient in working with the children in the area of music as she was in directing the many other activities and experiences.

Weaknesses may frequently be more conspicuous than strengths. For this reason, it is sometimes difficult to find, and hence capitalize upon, the strong points of a student teacher; however, recognition of these is important and will acquaint him with the fact that the whole experience of student teaching is being approached in a professional manner. Another reason for emphasizing strengths is that the student may not know his potential abilities or be aware of the good teaching he may be doing. When ability and good work are recognized and reasons given for their high appraisal, and when application of what is good is made in a variety of situations, the student teacher is then able to broaden the use of his skill and to find ways of improving his teaching.

Good students have no desire to be told constantly what to do, and persist in wanting a supervising teacher who works with them on their problems, rather than one who merely gives orders or prescribes specifics. They want a program planned in terms of sound principles of teaching which lays the foundation for self-activated growth. The best program of student teaching, then, aids students to become self-directive.

5. Student Teaching Develops a Sound Philosophy of Education.

Usually when a student teacher is asked, "What is your philosophy of education?" he becomes ill at ease and utters long, involved statements filled with vague generalities. The words "philosophy of education" have too often become associated in the thinking of most students with stilted statements composed of difficult and uncommon words put together in unusual combinations which serve only to obscure still more the clouded concepts of the words. Yet it is safe to assume

or inferior teaching. Such a program of student teaching assumes that each new situation which confronts the student as teacher will, in the last analysis, be no more than a duplicate of previous ones. In reality, each teaching-learning situation in his future work will be different. Even for the same group of children, each learning experience changes each pupil and leaves him a slightly different person.

The truly functional program of student teaching affords an ideal opportunity for directing student teachers toward the development of self-analysis and self-improvement as teachers and as students, thereby promoting discovery of their strengths and revealing how to capitalize upon them. 'Most individuals perform some tasks better than others because certain abilities are stronger, and they attempt and enjoy most those which they do best: As early as possible, then, the student teacher needs to discover his greatest assets for teaching, because these strengths will become the focal points of his program and enhance his success.

On the other hand, neither must shortcomings which interfere with progress be ignored. 'Analysis of the weak points in teaching is to be made in as skillful a manner as discovery of strengths. The supervising teacher may promote more ready acceptance of the situation by letting the student apply his own adverse criticism, rather than that offered by another, no matter how tactful the presentation.' Weaknesses should not be avoided, glossed over, or hidden by either supervising teacher or student; rather, both should face and attack the weak points in a frank and objective manner.) With the help of the supervising teacher, the student may discover unrecognized latent strengths among some of his weak points.

Betty Powell, for example, felt that she was unable to direct the musical activities of the fifth grade boys and girls to whom she had been assigned as student teacher. In fact, Betty was so convinced that she seized upon every opportunity to avoid situations involving musical activities. The supervising teacher recognized the difficulty and with the help of a specialist in

almost universal tendency among educators to define education in terms of the first aspect, the adjustment process. From this point of view, education is a process by which the inner conditions of the person become adjusted to the outer existing pattern of elements. Certainly there is an obvious need for the individual to learn to adapt himself to existing conditions; indeed, the impinging vicissitudes of a rigorous environment upon the individual have made it imperative that he adapt in order to survive. And, as the maturity of the individual increases and the complexity of the world in which he lives becomes greater, the services and responsibilities of the adaptive functions of education are increased in proportion.

All of life, however, is not to be found in giving way before the exactions of the surrounding world. The creative genius of man has not been content to accept the world as he finds it. He continually strives to reconstruct his environment so as to meet his needs better and satisfy his desires. The results of his efforts have not been limited to the physical aspects of his life; they have greatly affected his social environment as well. The changes he has effected and the complexities he has created have in themselves acted as stimuli for further activity. The greatness of man's conquest of his world and the strength of his potential for effecting still further change are evidence of the emphasis which needs to be placed upon the reconstructive aspect of the educative process.

No concept of education can be complete without recognition of the values inherent in, and evolving from, the educative process. The modern conception of educational values is twofold as was the interaction concept just described. The concept of interaction holds that changes will take place in both individual and environment. Such changes will be quantitative and qualitative in nature, and to the extent that they include quality, values are involved. Insofar as the process of education develops the individual as a person in all aspects, the quality of the change is positive and the individual has profited. To the extent that the process may have improved

that each student teacher has some philosophy of education, however vaguely formulated and however difficult for him to enunciate. Through the years of his school attendance and study of the educative process, he must have developed some kind of understanding of the meaning of education and its functions and purposes, but unfortunately he may not have been able to bring his concept of education into clear focus. As a result he carries on the practices bequeathed by tradition, while struggling to determine the direction in which to go. Like Alice in Wonderland, he is on his way to "somewhere," though the destination may not be too clear to him or to his pupils.

There is really no need for the statement of an educational viewpoint to be complicated or abstruse, for nearly all concepts of modern education can be expressed in language so simple as to be easily understood by all who participate in the work of the school. 'The first step for the student teacher in formulating his philosophy of education is to develop a satisfactory definition of education, this being the cornerstone of educational belief.' A clear understanding of the meaning of education is the only sound and continually helpful guide to the development of a useful philosophy of education.'

Any adequate comprehension of education begins with the basic processes involved in the interaction of the individual with his environment. There is, of course, no such thing as a living organism without an environment. Each human individual lives in an environment and consequently cannot escape interacting with it. Without such interaction there can be no experience. Without experience there can be no learning, and without learning there is no education. Educational activities of the highest type are lifelike in nature, and the educative process is one of the vital processes of human life.'

The interaction of individual with environment as a fundamental element in the educative process presents a twofold aspect; first, as the adjustment of the individual to his environment and second, as the re-creation or reconstruction of the environment by the individual. Heretofore, there has been an

The philosophy of the student teacher should be ambitious, but it must also be practicable. It should enlarge his scope and indicate methods and procedures in advance of current practice. At the same time, the tasks outlined and the goals determined must be capable of achievement within the framework of a real situation. This does not mean accepting existing limits as permanent barriers to progress or using such restrictions as excuses for failure to develop and put into practice the best methodology possible. On the contrary, it suggests at once a common-sense approach to achieving improvement in terms of existing conditions and a challenge to expand the existing limits. And finally, the stated beliefs must impel the student to provide a teaching-learning situation helpful to all pupils, not merely to those who are gifted, or who can deal successfully with academic abstractions. The student teacher must believe strongly enough in the educational principles he has accepted that he will practice them daily in his work with boys and girls.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Enter student teaching with an open mind and a readiness for new experiences.
2. Develop the fullest possible understanding of the teaching-learning process.
3. Work toward the mastery of the skill of directing the learning of boys and girls.
4. Assume your share of the responsibility for planning your program of student teaching.
5. Build new understandings upon learnings previously developed.
6. Choose carefully the related courses which go along with student teaching.
7. Become acquainted with recent research in your particular field of interest in education.
8. Be prepared to participate in experimentation of various types.

the environment in physical and social respects, the nature of these values would again be positive and society have benefited. Clearly, then, there are two aspects of educative values: first, those involving educational value individual in nature; second, ones including value of a social character.

Because value accrues to society from the operation of the educative process, society has created the school and charged it with the formal task of producing acceptably functioning members of the social group. The established patterns of democratic thought and behavior are the goals toward which the efforts of the American school are directed. Included among the ends to be achieved are the knowledge, skills, understandings, ideas, attitudes, appreciations, loyalties, and aspirations approved by the group. These will be limited and determined primarily by two criteria: the fundamental philosophy of the American society, and the activities of the individual deemed necessary for successful living in the social group. Achievement by the school is further limited by the fact that it cannot be responsible for the total education of the child, but only the more formal part. Many social agencies and forces, including particularly the home and the church, contribute.

Planning of an educational program therefore cannot be done on the assumption that the school is the only important institution. One may ask whether it is possible for the school to undertake the total education of the child. Can it be expected to be father, mother, and minister, as well as teacher? Does it have the financial and other physical resources to attempt such a role? Does its personnel have the extensive training and infinite wisdom necessary to perform the task of total education? Rather, the role of the school must be differentiated from, though related to, the work of all the agencies of society which influence the thought and behavior of the individual. Only thus can the school perform its own functions effectively. Hence, the definition of the role of the school and of the tasks it is to perform becomes an important part of the student teacher's perspective.

3. Choose one relatively recent and significant research study in your area of interest. Study the report carefully and list the most significant findings and contributions.
4. Define in detail the terms: interaction, human relations, theory, practice, learning, and teaching.
5. Develop a check list of desirable traits for a teacher and then evaluate yourself in terms of the check list. Ask other students to evaluate you in terms of the items.
6. Write your own philosophy of education, stressing the purposes and goals of education and the channels through which these may be achieved.
7. Study the philosophies of education as developed by various eminent persons and compare and contrast their beliefs with those which you have developed.

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12 *Creating a Setting for Student Teaching*

9. Utilize every opportunity to link theory with practice.
10. Become self-directive in your student teaching activities.
11. Strive to be cognizant of the differences in the learners with whom you work.
12. Be conscious of your strengths and weaknesses.
13. Use self-criticism intelligently.
14. Be prepared to accept constructive criticism from others in a pleasant way.
15. Bring into clear focus your ideas about education.
16. Become acquainted with the philosophy of education expressed by others
17. Put yourself in the shoes of other persons with whom you work so you may understand their reactions.
18. Become acquainted with the educational environment of the pupils
19. Study carefully values which are operative in the community and groups with which you work.
20. Develop an understanding of the social agencies and forces which supplement and complement the work of the school.
21. Develop the ability to work for the improvement of present conditions in terms of existing conditions.

PROBLEMS

1. Obtain from other institutions of higher education their programs for the preparation of teachers. Study these programs and make comparisons with your own program. Make constructive suggestions for the improvement of your program.
2. Select one profession other than teaching and learn as much as possible about the program of preparation. Draw contrasts and comparisons between the two programs of preparation. Take into account the different objectives of the two professions.

ACTION APPROACH

1. *What are some of the experiences which every student teacher should have prior to actual student-teaching experience?*
2. *How can one gain understandings and skills connected with community functions and resources?*
3. *What are some means of gaining a better understanding of people?*
4. *With what different groups does the control of our public schools rest, and what are the relationships between the groups or agencies?*
5. *Differentiate among the responsibilities and duties of those persons connected with the average school system. For example, what are the various duties of the superintendent, principal, supervisor, and teacher?*
6. *How can student teaching best provide for the different personalities and abilities of the student teachers?*
7. *How can student teaching be explained to pupils and parents in such a way that they will understand the duties and responsibilities of the school, the teacher, and the student teacher?*
8. *What safeguards should be taken in the development of a student-teaching program in order that the pupils will be guaranteed the strongest and best possible program?*
9. *When is a student teacher "ready" for actual teaching experience?*

II.

PREPARING FOR STUDENT TEACHING

PREPARATION for any field of work should be a serious undertaking. It has significant implications not only for the individual immediately affected by the process, but as well

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Co-operative relationships with all of the major community organizations and with numerous residents furnish a variety of opportunities for the students to become acquainted with community life. Learning experiences of the student group include interviews with a cross section of the citizenry, group discussions with representatives from community agencies, many trips, informal class discussions, work with children in a classroom and in varied youth groups, social activities of a varied nature, luncheons and dinners with civic organizations, cook-outs, and contributions of volunteer service to groups requesting assistance.

Interviews and group discussions are held with laymen and leaders in the area of industry, business, education, government, religion, civic organizations, agriculture, professional services, recreation, communication, and transportation.

Field trips are taken to governmental offices and agencies, places of business, rural and urban schools in and near Marshall, the Kellogg Bird Sanctuary, a school camp, industrial concerns, religious agencies, and to other places of interest.

Soon after the term is under way each student works for a half-day period in a classroom in the Marshall Public Schools. Interrelated to the work with class groups are such activities as home visitations, attendance at teacher group meetings, working with youth groups after school, and conferring with local educational leaders.¹

Evaluations received from students who have participated in this program of prestudent-teaching experiences indicate significant growth in:

1. Understanding of what makes a community function.
2. Gaining a better understanding of people.
3. Realizing and respecting the differences in children.

¹ Hill, Guy H., and Stearns, Troy L., "An Adventure in Teacher Education," *Professional Laboratory Experiences*, Twenty-Seventh Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching, Lock Haven, Pa., 1948, p. 26.

for the status of the occupation concerned and for the society served by such vocation. Recent developments in teacher-education programs indicate that prestudent-teaching experiences are now considered to be of far more importance than they were in the past. In fact, preparatory experiences are considered so significant that many institutions are revising their entire programs; prospective teachers now engage in "laboratory experiences," or various activities which amplify understanding of the different aspects of teaching, before they come to the student-teaching program.

6. *Contact with Educational Problems Is Distributed throughout the Entire Period of Professional Preparation.*

There are evidently two major choices regarding teacher education today. The first is to continue the framework of professional classes in which an attempt is made to tell prospective teachers how to teach, or to tell them "about" teaching. The other choice is to change the framework of professional education to include such experiences as demonstrations, field trips and field work, teaching responsibilities, and other contacts with the community and with boys and girls.

Student teaching is such a sizable undertaking in so short a span that all preparation possible is helpful. (This fact has led to a realization that theory and practice cannot be separated in courses leading to student teaching. Various types of observation and participation should be included in the first pre-professional course.) The more experiences of this type provided, the better the program will meet the multitude of needs of the students.

Several years ago Michigan State University inaugurated a program which provides for "learning by sharing." In one of the articles describing this plan, two of those who participated in the program had this to say about it:

7. Adequate Preparation for Student Teaching Includes an Understanding of the Support and Control of Schools.

If the student teacher is to perform effectively and receive maximum benefit from his experiences, it is important that he understand the background of the system of education in the nation and in his own state.

No other country in the world has a system of education like that of the United States. Over a long period of time, Americans have demonstrated their belief that education should be kept close to the people served by the schools. As a result of this American dream, no strong central ministry of education has been established. Instead, educational organization and finance have been left largely to the state and local governments. Local boards of education make a great number of decisions which are important in the operation of the schools, however, and the student teacher should have a clear understanding of the differences which exist between the responsibilities of the board members and those delegated to the superintendent and other administrators.

Regulations governing the certification or licensing of teachers are formulated by the various State Boards of Education or by legislative action and are administered by the State Departments of Education. Each local system must conform to the state regulations in employing its staff members. It should be emphasized, however, that practically every state gives local school systems the option of setting standards at a higher level. In such matters, therefore, as certification regulations, power is vested in both state and local authorities. Moreover, a knowledge of the way in which the programs of teacher-education institutions are related to the certification regulations of the state in which the institutions are located is of value in making clear to the student the relationships among various local and state agencies.

In other matters, such as the actual selection of personnel

4. Learning and using group processes.
5. Becoming aware of community resources and how to use them.
6. Gaining self-confidence and poise.
7. Recognizing the value of firsthand experiences in teaching.
8. Becoming more tolerant toward other people and having a respect for their contributions.

Experiences such as those included in the Michigan State program add much to the meaning of the student-teaching program. No longer is the formal, textbook approach an adequate means of preparing students for the experiences which they will encounter during student teaching. Many institutions have also recommended and arranged for experience to be gained by the prospective teacher in the school system of his own home community. 'Under such provision, 'the student spends a week or two during the first fall school days working in his local schools. Such service is performed without remuneration and is under the direct supervision of local teachers and administrators 'Students have excellent opportunities to study procedures involved in the opening of a school term and also to be of tremendous service to their schools through various types of work which they can perform.

Future Teachers Clubs in high schools all over the nation are making it possible for prospective teachers to have pre-college experience in teaching and educational service work.) The Marie Turner Future Teachers Club of Breathitt County, Kentucky, has developed a program in which each member provides at least three days of service per semester in one of the lower grades of his school system, helping the regular teacher and becoming acquainted with boys and girls and with problems of teaching. When contact with educational problems can be distributed over the entire period of professional preparation, student teaching becomes a more meaningful experience.

schools between the citizens and the board, and between the board and the employed personnel. (These relationships are illustrated in Figure 1.) Perhaps the clearest summation of the relationships would be to say that the citizens elect the board members to represent them in educational matters, the board formulates policies for executing the program it feels the people desire and need, and the administrator and staff of the school system then assume the responsibility for providing the organizational machinery to facilitate the operation of the school program. All procedures, under the best conditions, should be highly co-operative affairs, and lines of communication should be kept open among all functionaries; however, the differentiation in functions must always be recognized.

As mentioned earlier, the well-prepared student of teaching is intimately acquainted with the part that the school plays in connection with other agencies of the community in providing opportunities for appropriate learning experiences for all members of the community. To this end, the educational activities of all community agencies are closely co-ordinated, and the school occupies a unique position as it assumes its responsibility in the co-ordination. The community relationships must be understood by the student teacher if he is to be effective in his work.

The financial support of the schools represents an area for further understanding to be developed in preparation for student teaching. Although the system of financing the schools may differ in some respects from community to community and from state to state, the general pattern is the same nationally. In practically every locality, educational support is a co-operative affair, with the local citizens contributing some money through local taxes, and the state contributing another portion from its tax income. The federal government contributes a small amount to the support of education in some localities through its programs of vocational education and through various types of school lunch programs; however, the amounts stemming from federal sources are so small that it is safe to

and the payment of staff members, local schools have a great measure of freedom. It cannot be emphasized too strongly, however, that applications for positions are made directly to the superintendent of schools or his delegated assistant. The local boards of education, which represent the people, have the responsibility of formulating the policies which will govern superintendents and others in the selection of personnel and other aspects of operation; but the board is never an administrative body.

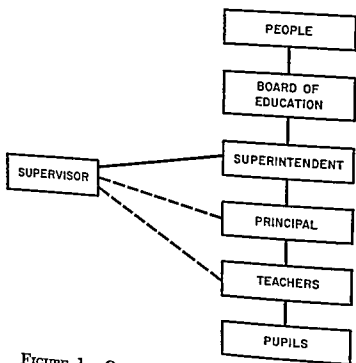


FIGURE 1. Organizational Relationships in a School System. Solid lines indicate line and/or administrative relationships. Broken lines indicate staff and/or supervisory relationships.

As the schools of the nation have become more highly professionalized, clearer differentiations have been drawn between the duties of the board and those of the school administrators. It is, therefore, of extreme importance that the prospective teacher understand the relationships which should exist in the

than it is a process planned and conducted by the supervising teacher and practiced by the student.¹

There are indications that many supervising teachers do not fully understand or subscribe to the concept expressed. The limited use which one supervising teacher is making of the co-operative planning of activities is illustrated by his insistence upon basing the student-teaching experience on, and limiting it to, his own activity plans. He has secured and partly developed through the years a series of units or plans of different activities for the student teacher to perform. These have been prepared as a kind of "student-teaching workbook," which the student is asked to complete as the main part of his work. For example, there is a prepared guide, or unit activity, on "lesson-planning," in which the student prepares several rather elaborate lesson-plans based upon different assigned topics. Consideration of whether the topics are real to the student or pertinent to the lessons actually to be taught is not admitted to the experience. And carry-over and application to the actual planning of real lessons is left to be mastered by the student as need arises. Student participation in planning the activities described would, no doubt, make them much more valuable learning experiences by accomplishing two ends: first, building the activities and experiences around the real problems which the student faces in his work with boys and girls, and second, attacking the problems as they are met in the course of the student's daily teaching.

'The success of the student-teaching activity depends strongly upon the maintenance of good relationships. A feeling of self-respect and self-confidence are essential for the maximum growth of the student teacher. Both attributes may be destroyed if the supervising teacher fails to respect the thinking and efforts of the student. The ideas of a sincere student probably represent his best thinking and, therefore, deserve careful consideration by the supervising teacher. Worthy notions should be commended and unsound ones constructively criticized. Criticism will be accepted by the student teacher if, in

say that the educational partnership presently is largely a two-way affair between state and local school district. It is impracticable to include a detailed study of the various programs of school support; however, a thorough understanding of the support of the schools in which the student teacher will teach will clarify the responsibilities of school and teacher in terms of financial matters.

8. Effective Student Teaching Is Based upon Student Participation.

(Student teaching becomes functional only when the work of the student is planned, organized, and directed as a learning exercise in a teaching-learning situation.) (The nature of the learning process is described in Principle 28, Chapter V.) Here it is postulated that the student teacher does not learn unless his behavior changes. His behavior is changed by experience which he undergoes, and these result from his interaction with the environment. Functionally speaking, student teaching becomes the experience resulting from the interaction of the student teacher with an environment designed to produce changes in his behavior aimed toward becoming a teacher. And what the student does is more important than what his supervising teacher does. (This is to say, the student teacher learns to teach primarily through his own activity, and the importance, therefore, of what the supervising teacher does is determined by what he is able to get the student to do.)

Such a program does not stem from the efforts of but one person but is the result of co-operative thinking and action. When plans are made, they will be placed into operation primarily by the student teacher. Certainly, the supervising teacher is active in the process, but his activity is directed mainly at getting action on the part of the student. Plans become formative only as the student teacher attempts to follow them in his teaching. An effective program of student teaching is more of a student activity directed by the supervising teacher

they will have different facial expressions, voices, postures, and many other external characteristics. While such characteristics may not actually determine behavior, they may influence the pupils' reactions to the prospective teachers. For example, Marjorie was a petite, pretty student teacher who looked fully as young and attractive as any eleventh grade girl in her English class. Her apparent immaturity, which stemmed almost entirely from external characteristics, was an open invitation to the boys in her class to flirt with her. The situation provided many problems in group control for Marjorie and imposed upon her the need to exhibit compensatory classroom behavior to offset outward appearance. Of course, physical differences among students are not limited to external characteristics. In organismic structure and function, there will be great differences which will affect classroom behavior in various ways.

In every group of prospective teachers, social and cultural differences are obvious. There are students from broken homes, from happy homes, from families abiding by strict puritanical values, from the upper-class socioeconomic group, and perhaps the ghetto. Whatever the family culture or the socioeconomic group from which the student teacher comes, his behavior has been conditioned by his sociocultural background. The influence of that background upon the behavioral pattern of the student will be evident in the ways of living, of solving problems, and of meeting lifelike situations he attempts to develop in connection with the pupils he teaches.

In addition to being different physically and culturally, student teachers differ psychologically. They are different in their ability to learn, in the quality and nature of their perceptions, in their volitions, in their emotional reactions, and in many other psychological ways too numerous to mention. Indeed, the variety and intensity of psychological differences make it imperative that student teaching be planned in a way which considers each individual personality and the means by which each may best learn and grow. The program which assumes that all student teachers are so constituted psycho-

turn, he has developed respect for, and gained confidence in, the supervising teacher; for, in the last analysis, the development of esteem is a two-way process.'

Functional guidance of student teaching emphasizes the theory that people learn through trial and error. The student teacher's adequacy in new situations will be enhanced by tactful attention to his making a mistake and consideration of a way for correcting it. The student wants to know how to overcome his difficulties, but he does not wish to be blamed for them; he wants a chance to "save his face." He appreciates frank discussion of his mistakes and problems, but, by being permitted to "save face," he retains a measure of self-respect. The most effective student-teaching experience is one in which the student participates in a program based upon developing a better understanding of the purposes of education and the principles of good teaching and learning.

9. Student Teaching Provides for Students of Different Personalities and Abilities.

No supervising teacher would deny that the boys and girls he teaches are different from one another according to many separate aspects. Professional preparation has admonished that the unique needs-pattern of the individual pupil should become the educational focal point. Curiously enough, however, there is a tendency among educational theorists and practitioners to fail to make the logical application of the same reasoning to teachers, whether in training or on the job. Certainly, if pupils are different from one another, teachers and student teachers also differ, and do so possibly to an even greater degree than children, because maturity allows more time for differences to develop.

The differences existing among student teachers can easily be confirmed by inspecting any group of college seniors who are engaged in learning to teach. There will be short, tall, lean, and fat students—those who differ physically, or biologically;

activities. The hobbies and interests to which a student devotes his leisure reveal much of the real person and many times open avenues for the development of teaching skills.

A convenient way of compiling such information is to maintain a cumulative personnel record for each student. A copy of the "Student Teacher Information Blank" used at the University of Kentucky (included as Appendix B of this volume) is an example of the kind of record indicated. The blank includes data concerning personal history, precollege scholastic record, college record, and general information about cultural background, interests, hobbies, and extracurricular activities.

The record should be adapted by the supervising teacher to meet his needs in working with a particular student teacher. For example, with the blank (Appendix B), supervising teachers at the University of Kentucky place in the cumulative personnel folder of each student the results of health examinations, tests, check lists, interviews, conferences, questionnaires, observations, evaluations of the student-teaching experience by the student and supervising teachers, and any other pertinent information. The additional information is invaluable to supervising teachers in learning to know the student as a person, in understanding his point of view, and in interpreting the ways in which he works with boys and girls.

Student teaching has to be diversified so that it will meet the needs of the variety of students it serves. It is true there are some needs common to all student teachers; to meet such needs, certain phases of professional education are designed in the nature of "common learnings." Each student, however, has a number of individual needs, as indicated, and the program must be so conceived that diversification and individualization are possible. Only when student teachers are understood and accepted can they learn to understand and accept themselves and the children they teach.

logically that they can develop the same methodology equally well is doomed to failure.

In planning for student teaching, it is quite necessary to take into consideration the variations in the growth needs of the students. The mere recognition that students' needs differ, however, is not enough. How they differ must necessarily be known if the supervising teacher is to bring about changes in students and their teaching which in turn will produce better teaching-learning situations for the children they teach. The typical growth needs of student teachers are summarized in the following general terms:

1. To grow in social understanding.
2. To gain an acquaintance with boys and girls and an understanding of their social, physical, mental, and moral growth and development.
3. To formulate a sound philosophy of education which relates the roles of teacher, school, and other educational agencies in modern society.
4. To learn how to provide and direct learning experiences
5. To learn how to locate and utilize community resources.
6. To develop sound teaching methods and techniques.
7. To learn how to work democratically with others.
8. To learn how to select and use learning materials.
9. To learn to evaluate personal teaching competency.
10. To understand the status, problems, ethics, and organizations of the teaching profession.

In taking account of individual differences and in determining the growth needs of student teachers, the supervising teacher will need a volume of information about the students. For example, the supervising teacher will need to have data concerning health, training, academic achievement, intelligence, professional and nonprofessional experience, and cultural background. Moreover, the supervising teacher will want to know something of the student's out-of-school interests and

outside the major field, attending athletic, dramatic, or musical events in school situations, and working with various aspects of guidance and counseling programs.

When the school personnel and student teacher understand that student teaching is an all-school experience, the program of directed teaching becomes a meaningful and profitable period of preparation.

11. Pupils in the Classroom and Parents in the Community Need a Sound Knowledge of the Student-Teaching Program and Its Purposes.

Studies demonstrate rather conclusively that learning is facilitated by the work of student teachers in a school. More individual attention for the pupils in the classroom is possible; and a greater amount of learning takes place under such situations. It is true, however, that the presence of student teachers also presents certain problems and necessitates various kinds of action to assure the maximum benefits to all concerned.

Since student teachers work with pupils, it is imperative that both parents and pupils have an understanding of the purposes and procedures involved in student teaching. Too often parents and pupils receive the erroneous impression that a student-teaching program means that the regular teacher is relieved of all teaching duties and that the student teacher "takes over." Through such misunderstandings, parents and pupils sometimes become antagonistic toward programs of student teaching. Those responsible for the program itself may make use of such media as letters, bulletins, conferences, and forums in the process of acquainting pupils and parents with the program of student teaching.

Student teachers are public relations persons for their institution, and for the school system in which their student teaching is being done. Even though the student teacher is not on the payroll of the school, he is viewed by citizens as a part of the faculty, and he should feel honored that he is so considered.

10. *The Faculty of the School Is Included in the Planning and Operation of the Student Teacher Program.*

Various plans for providing student-teaching experiences are in operation in different teacher-education institutions. In some instances entire schools are utilized for student-teaching experiences, with every teacher in the building or system working directly with student teachers. In other cases, only selected teachers are used in the student-teaching program. However, in either event, the facilities of the entire school should be accessible to student teachers. It is not fair to isolate a student teacher in one room, regardless of the quality of the experience that he may gain there. When he completes his student-teaching program, he will probably acquire a varied full-time position, and his preparation should have anticipated the same kind of situation. As a consequence of this point of view, it becomes the responsibility and obligation of the teacher-education institution to make proper provision for such experience. Such a task is a fundamental part of the preparation for student teaching. The responsibility, however, does not end with institutional preparation, because the student teacher himself has a major responsibility to prepare for such experiences.

While it is true that many elementary grades and some of the core-curriculum programs in the junior and senior high schools are self-contained to a major extent, every teacher in a modern system of education relies upon other teachers and upon the various services offered in connection with the educational programs. Even though a student teacher may intend to teach only fifth grade or mathematics or Latin, he still must have an understanding of the related services which are a part of the school in which he works. For example, he needs a good understanding of the guidance program, the specified fields, such as art, music, and physical education, and the co-curricular activities carried on in the school. Preparation for student teaching should include such experiences as visiting in classes

additional service. In many instances, the institutions which are responsible for the education of the student teachers also provide supervisory services to the systems in which the student teaching is conducted. In this way, additional values accrue to the school systems concerned.

As indicated, the most important result of this procedure lies in the co-operative planning of the program by all concerned. Program planning includes evaluation. It is highly desirable, then, that parents and pupils be called upon to evaluate the program from time to time in order that improvements may be made. In the program of off-campus student teaching operated through the University of Florida, the communities in which student teaching is conducted are given the opportunity each year of evaluating both the elementary and secondary student-teaching programs. In this way, new ideas are received for improving the programs, and at the same time the persons who are directly and indirectly involved in the school student-teaching relationships are given a part in planning and operation.

12. *A Modern Program of Student Teaching Safeguards the Interests of Pupils.*

(The major criticism of student teaching which is raised by parents centers about the occasional exploitation of pupils. Such malpractice may be the case in those educational situations where supervising teachers and student teachers have not been properly oriented to the more modern concepts of student teaching.

While it is true that student teaching is essentially designed to prepare teachers for full-time teaching responsibilities, the pupils in the practice classrooms must never suffer. It has been pointed out that under the best conditions the pupils actually benefit from the presence of, and help given by, student teachers. On the other hand, if the program is not properly

Although the future of the student depends in large measure upon the success which he achieves in his directed teaching experiences, the period of preparation is not directed entirely toward purely personal ends. The student teacher can and should make a real contribution to the school system in which he is doing his teaching and to the community in which he lives. Especially is this true of the student who looks upon his directed teaching as a professional experience and who conducts himself accordingly.

Many times the student teacher will have opportunities to participate in "selling" the student-teaching program to pupils and citizens. He can help by informing them of the favorable points of the program and by showing them the ways in which the pupils are enabled to have a better and fuller program of education. Such points as the following can make an instructive argument:

1. A sound program of student teaching makes it possible for pupils to have additional help, thus aiding both gifted and slow-learning pupils.
2. The presence of a student teacher in a classroom or on a playground does not entirely free the regular teacher of responsibility, but it becomes possible for the latter to spend additional time in planning ways and means for offering an enriched program.
3. A student-teaching program brings persons of rich and varied backgrounds to the classrooms and thus provides a broader and more stimulating program. (For example, one class in Massachusetts was fortunate enough to have a student teacher who had lived for ten years in India. During the second semester of that same year, the pupils had a student teacher who had formerly lived in California.)
4. Although it does not seem to advertise this point, it should be brought out that a student-teaching program is worth considerable money to a school system, for, without any major expenditure on the part of the school system, the teachers and pupils are receiving much

extreme; nevertheless it serves to illustrate the necessity of having student teaching conducted under the most normal and typical school conditions possible. The principle applies too to physical conditions, but should not be construed to mean that good facilities are not desirable; it would seem obvious that too elaborate or too meager provisions will seriously limit the effectiveness of student teaching. The prospective teacher must be prepared to step into a contingent teaching situation without having to make many adjustments because of the student-teaching experience he has had. But, since some adjustment is always necessary, his directed teaching experiences should have taught him to be creative, resourceful, and interested in experimentation—such elements should certainly characterize every student-teaching situation.)

Obviously, there will be certain needs of student teachers which may demand special school conditions, such as the need to learn how to teach children handicapped by speech or hearing deficiencies. But the student who is preparing to teach the usual elementary or secondary groups should have access to a typical school in terms of size, location, school population, financial support, and teaching personnel.

The promising teacher-to-be is interested in experimentation. Sometimes, however, problems may be created by having had all of one's preparation for teaching in a school that is extremely experimental in its program. Many dissatisfactions and poor adjustments can result from radical experimental training experiences. At the other extreme, school situations which are dull and unchallenging are also productive of problems of adjustment. To be effective, student teaching must be conducted in school and classroom situations which are typical, rather than atypical, in nature.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Take advantage of as many opportunities as possible to gain a variety of experiences with boys and girls prior to actual teaching.

planned, so that responsibilities between the regular teacher and student teacher are predetermined and distributed, the pupils may not receive the greatest good from the student teaching.

It is not considered sound practice to give the student teacher full responsibility during the first weeks of his directed teaching experience. Actually, to give him many responsibilities may prove to be harmful to both student teacher and pupils. This caution emphasizes the importance of "readiness for teaching"—a principle which should be observed by both student and supervising teachers; otherwise the pupils conceivably might suffer by being subjected to a teacher who is not prepared for actual teaching duties. Moreover, it is equally poor practice to permit or to urge the student to carry the full teaching load for a prolonged period of time, even when he has reached the point at which he can be given full responsibility.

Every precaution should be taken in preparing the student for teaching so as to be certain he understands the importance of the pupils as individuals and the necessity for respecting them as persons who learn. If all of those concerned with the student-teaching program focus their attention upon the welfare of the children, the pupils will profit by the program and enjoy the benefits of richer instructional experiences.

13. *Effective Student Teaching Is Done under Typical School Conditions.*

Inspection of one teacher-preparation program has revealed a situation in which the student-teaching assignment required the student to work a full semester with one seriously crippled boy and three children of extremely low mental ability. The prospective teacher concerned was not planning to devote his teaching career to the instruction of the handicapped; he was preparing to be the teacher of a normal group of boys and girls; yet his student-teaching experience was seriously limited by the nature of his assignment. Of course, such an example is

22. Be friendly, but not offensively so, in your relationships with other teachers on the faculty.
23. Assist in acquainting the public with the strengths of the student-teaching program in your school or school system.
24. Work closely with parents and pupils in understanding the purposes of student teaching.
25. Be sure that the pupils are not unduly "used" in the student-teaching program.
26. Become familiar with the facilities which are available for student teachers in your school.

PROBLEMS

1. In co-operation with your supervising teacher, or with other student teachers, make a list of community resources (both human and natural) which will be of value to you in your student-teaching experience.
2. Obtain information from your supervising teacher, or from other sources which may be suggested, which will enable you to understand the financial support and control of the school system in which you are working. Such information would probably include source of taxes, distribution of funds, and organization for control and operation of schools.
3. Write to the department of education of the state in which you plan to teach and secure the complete regulations governing the certification or licensing of teachers and administrators. Study these regulations carefully, giving attention not only to initial certification but to regulations governing renewals of certificates and conversions to other certificates.
4. From information which you obtain from your supervising teacher and others make an organizational chart (similar to the one in this chapter) indicating the relationships which exist among various component parts of the school system in which you are working.
5. Select a particular problem which in your experience has

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2. Strive to develop an understanding of what makes a community function.
3. Be alert to the differences in children.
4. Learn about, and make actual use of, desirable group processes.
5. Become aware of community resources and learn how to use them.
6. Develop self-confidence and poise.
7. Recognize the value of firsthand experiences in teaching.
8. Attempt to become more tolerant toward others and have a respect for their contributions.
9. Help develop Future Teacher organizations in high schools and in institutions of higher education.
10. Participate actively in Future Teacher organizations.
11. Develop an understanding of the responsibilities of those persons connected with our American school systems.
12. Become acquainted with the certification or licensing regulations of the state in which you plan to teach.
13. Learn as much as possible about the organizational relationships in a typical school system.
14. Learn how public schools are financed.
15. Participate in all school activities while a student teacher.
16. Become acquainted with the cultural and the other differences which exist within the student-teaching group with which you work.
17. Develop the ability to work democratically with others.
18. Gain an understanding of the status, problems, ethics, and organizations of the teaching profession.
19. Become a student of sound teaching methods and techniques.
20. Be co-operative in supplying information which will enable your supervising teacher to understand you as an individual and to assist you in becoming a better teacher.
21. Become acquainted with the faculty members of the school in which you are a student teacher.

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- been solved by group participation. Reconstruct the steps which were followed in the solution of the problem and evaluate the effectiveness of the procedure.
6. Write an article which would be suitable for newspaper publication describing the student-teaching program of which you are a part and indicating the values which accrue to the community as a result of this program.
 7. Formulate a "bill of rights" which could be utilized by student teachers to guarantee that the interests of pupils in student-teaching situations would be adequately safeguarded.
 8. Describe in a brief article what you would consider "desirable," "adequate," and "undesirable" conditions in which student teaching might take place. Take into consideration the physical facilities, the program of the school, the personnel of the school, and any other factors which you think are significant.

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opportunity for a good start—a chance to adjust prior to the time he begins his real teaching. Of extreme importance to the student is an orientation period during which his activities are so gradually developed that he moves from one phase of his program to another without encountering any perceptible hurdles. In this way, the period of initiation becomes a kind of personalized introduction which gradually readies the student for full-time teaching. Student teachers' needs are as varied as those of any group of learners, and the law of readiness for learning operates as definitely for them in regard to learning to teach as it does in any other learning situation. For this reason, no foolproof, inflexible program of orientation can be determined; however, it is possible to provide beginning student teachers with basic knowledges and guiding principles which help them gain a better understanding of the situation in which they will work.

14. Student Teaching Begins Where Students Are.

Student teaching begins with the students' problems, not with those of the supervising teacher. It grows out of, and takes its direction from, the needs and interests of the students. The supervising teacher who holds himself above and beyond the students, looks down upon them, and urges them to reach up to his rarefied state of perfection will not do much for student teachers who need help—and all of them need guidance and direction of some kind. Real assistance can be given only through an understanding of the actual problems faced by the students in their daily work of learning to teach. Miss Hargrave may be worried about getting the first graders to go to the lunchroom in good order. Mr. Groves may be unable to get some of the tenth grade biology group to bring their pencils to class. Unimportant as these needs may seem to be to the supervising teacher, they are the problems which the student teachers recognize. If first efforts are directed at meeting other needs recognized by the supervising teacher and considered

ACTION APPROACH

1. What are some of the problems which should be isolated and analyzed prior to undertaking student-teaching experiences?
2. Through what means can a sense of security and a feeling of self-confidence be developed on the part of the beginning student teacher?
3. What are the important factors in the general organization of the school in which student teaching is to be done?
4. How can the student teacher develop an understanding of the educational point of view held in the school?
5. What are the significant items which should be included in a conference between the student teacher and the supervising teacher in their first meeting?
6. What are some initial activities in which student teachers should participate during the first days of student teaching?
7. What attendance records and cumulative records are of importance to the student teacher?
8. What are the curricular problems with which a student teacher should be concerned?
9. How can the student teacher become acquainted with school, home, and community activities?
10. What are the best sources of information for the student teacher to utilize in gaining understanding of the physical, mental, and social development of the individual children and groups with whom he will work?

III.

BEGINNING

STUDENT

TEACHING

BECAUSE student teaching is widely acknowledged as the most important aspect of the preparation of teachers, it is imperative that the student teacher have the best possible

The supervising teacher needs to have full comprehension and understanding of students' problems if he is to help them become confident in their ability to solve their own problems. Because the supervising teacher cannot remain with the student on his future job as full-fledged teacher, and thus will not always be present when help is needed, he must help the student teacher develop confidence in his ability to meet immediate problems and unexpected ones as well.

Responsibility for developing the student's sense of security and feeling of self-confidence does not rest solely with the supervising teacher; actually, the student teacher must assume a large part. He must co-operate to the best of his ability with the supervising teacher and others connected with the student-training program in carrying out all policies, and he must not feel personally affronted if his suggestions are not accepted and incorporated into the program. He has a responsibility to himself as a person in developing and maintaining feelings of security and self-confidence. The knowledge that these are acquired only by the growing individual should serve to make him increase his stature as a teacher in every way possible. A whole-hearted desire for continuous professional development should result in his making every effort to improve himself as person and teacher, and the security and self-confidence resulting from his own efforts will do much to assure his eventual success.

The way student teachers react to the efforts of supervising teachers to work with them has a profound influence upon the success of the student-teaching experience. Belief in the ability of student teachers to succeed and recognition of their problems result on their part in feelings of accomplishment, which in turn build self-confidence and security. Probably the first job, then, of the supervising teacher is to determine where the student is in his thinking with respect to need for help. Willing co-operation and active participation in the activities of the program of student teaching are most likely to result from such a beginning. The program is actually developed through providing the activities and experiences which will

more important, little more will be accomplished than frustration.

It has been said that the purpose of student teaching is not to "tell" students what to do but rather to help them learn what their problems are, to isolate and analyze these, and to find the best solutions. Only when student teachers comprehend their problems are they able to start work toward solving them. Thus, one of the initial responsibilities which the supervising teacher must assume is that of the determination of the areas in which student teachers are in greatest need of assistance. Many students are, at first, able to recognize no more than that their teaching efforts are not producing the desired results. In such situations, the supervising teacher must offer assistance, not by doing the whole job of pointing out the specific areas of trouble, but by helping the student teachers to comprehend their problems for themselves.

Most student teachers have an earnest desire to do effective work; yet many are plagued by feelings of insecurity. John ———, for example, had been an excellent student in his college program and was considered a very promising prospective teacher until he began student teaching. He was a veteran of World War II and the sole supporter of his wife and small child. Realizing this, he became obsessed with the fear that he might not succeed as a student teacher or, barring this, that he might fail on the job as a regular teacher. At first he developed a good case of jitters. Then his failure to control the nervousness resulted in surliness and irritability. Finally, his insecurity and bad behavior resulted in an almost complete loss of control of himself and of his class. Disciplinary problems multiplied rapidly, and the quality of his work became so poor that he was unable to continue student teaching. He became discouraged with his prospect of becoming an established teacher and decided to major in business administration. A good supervising teacher could have become aware of John's feelings of insecurity early enough to have prevented the loss of so promising a young teacher.

schedule, library periods, physical education periods, and other special times.

3. The student teacher is given the opportunity to become familiar with the special equipment of the school, and should know where it is housed and how it may be scheduled for use. For example, he should know about the audio-visual materials and equipment and should understand the procedures involved in their use.
4. Attendance records and other types of records are explained to the student teacher. It is helpful if he has the opportunity to assume some responsibility for keeping attendance records as soon as familiarity with the activity justifies participation.
5. Students are familiarized with the placement of the rooms in the building as soon as possible, in order that they may take pupil groups from one place to another without confusion.
6. The various publications of the school are made available to the student teacher in order that he may familiarize himself with the activities of the school.

✓✓✓ 16. *Understanding the Educational Point of View of the School Is Basic to Beginning Student Teaching.*

Understanding the educational point of view of the school is one of the most important factors in assisting the student teacher to begin successfully. The student learns the beliefs to which the school subscribes by carefully observing accepted practices and by asking questions which will aid in understanding the philosophy of the program. Observations become more pointed through a study of the purposes and objectives established for the group or classes with which the student will work, and through an analysis of the course of study, the textbooks, and the supplementary materials which are used.

One student teacher may find himself in a school which stresses vocational competence because of the composition of its pupil population; another might be placed in a school which emphasizes college-preparatory training. The purposes and

assist the student teachers to solve their recognizable problems. If, as is often the case, the students do not recognize their problems, the supervising teacher must help them to become cognizant of their needs.

15. *Learning the General Organization of the School Is a First Step in Beginning Student Teaching.*

The student teacher needs to know all that is possible about the school in which he will do his student teaching before his experience actually begins. Many of the arrangements for the orientation of the student will be made by the supervising teacher prior to the arrival of the former. For example, it is usually assumed that the latter will have a place prepared for the student to put his personal belongings. Usually he will also have available the schedules of classes for the school; quite often a guidebook or handbook will be provided so the student teacher may learn the rules and regulations of the school as soon as possible. If such a manual is not available, one of the first conferences should be devoted to a discussion of such matters.

Another first step in the orientation of the student teacher to his new situation is to introduce him to pupils, other faculty members, staff workers, and parents. Such introduction should be made on the basis that he is a person who has a valuable contribution to make. Many schools, for example, shun the term "student teacher" in the introductions and merely present him as another teacher who will assist the regular teacher.

Other phases of the orientation of the student teacher will probably fall within the following list of activities:

1. The calendar for the semester and the year is provided and explained, so that the student teacher will know when certain holidays come, when various reports are due, and when special events are scheduled.
2. The daily schedule is explained in detail, so the student will understand such matters as the lunch schedule, bus

significance. This conference can do much to dissipate tensions and to make the student realize that it is not an experience to be feared. It is certainly not fair either to the supervising teacher or to the student to begin the activities of directed teaching without a conference period in which the two become acquainted.

The preparation of both persons for the conference is of extreme importance. Under optimal conditions, both supervising and student teachers will have had an opportunity to learn something about the other before the conference is held. While the conference is a professional activity, it should be thought of as a meeting between co-worker and learner.

Other matters entering into the initial conference are concerned with the time for reporting each day, the time for completing the work, lunch periods, and other problems of scheduling. Certain matters which have been mentioned in preceding Principles will also serve as topics to be discussed in the conference period. For example, the occasion of the conference is an excellent opportunity for the student teacher to become acquainted with the school rules and regulations, the school philosophy, and other matters of general orientation. During the conference too the student teacher has an opportunity to learn many of the requirements he is expected to meet. One matter of importance concerns the manner of dress considered appropriate for him in his duties in the school. If, by chance, the supervising teacher should overlook the matter of dress, the student must not hesitate to inquire. Quite often, apparel entirely appropriate for campus wear is not looked upon with favor in the school in which student teaching is conducted. It will help immensely if the student teacher remembers that he is considered a member of the professional staff of the school and that his dress and grooming should testify to this status.

Since the first conference is important to every one concerned, it should be arranged with as much care as possible. The physical setting is important, and "little matters" should

objectives in the two situations would be quite different, and the procedures used in the classroom and in other school situations would differ markedly. To illustrate the point further, some student teachers will find themselves in school situations in which no adopted textbooks are used, but, rather, a variety of materials and books might serve as texts. The purposes to be achieved and procedures which would be followed in such a classroom would probably be different from those of a more textbook-centered class.

The point of view of the school in terms of community responsibilities and relationships is also important to the student teacher in understanding the educational program in which he works. In some communities, the school will be the center of all activities and will assume a large degree of leadership in shaping and molding the attitudes of the community. On the other hand, there are some schools which feel their obligation is not to shape the future of the community but to reflect communal attitudes and desires. The position which the school takes in such matters is of vital importance to the student in learning about school-community relationships and in making plans and preparing activities for the boys and girls he teaches.

✓17. *The Supervising Teacher and the Student Teacher Should Confer Prior to the Student's First Visit to the Class.*

Undoubtedly the most important aspect of the beginning stage of student teaching is the initial conference between the supervising teacher and the student teacher. It is highly desirable that the initial contact between the two be arranged at a time when the supervising teacher is free from other duties. Preferably, such a meeting should come during the free period of the supervising teacher, before school, or after school.

Many students approach the initial conference with the supervising teacher with apprehension because they realize its

acquainted with the pupils of the group. He can learn the names, note the behavior of various individuals, study the reaction to various types of assignments, and learn as much as possible about the social relationships of the group or groups with which he will work.

The student teacher, in order to become acquainted with the pupils and their needs, will wish to study their cumulative records. It should be emphasized, however, that the records are confidential in nature and nothing found in them should be discussed with anyone except the supervising teacher. Thorough understanding of the total situation is basic to forming and expressing opinions about pupils, teachers, and the school. Free discussion with the supervising teacher or other responsible staff members is helpful in gaining understanding; but gossip is not an acceptable part of professional behavior.)

Another activity which may prove helpful to the student of teaching during the early days of his work is the grading of papers—pupil written work. If the first papers are graded in co-operation with the supervising teacher, the student can familiarize himself with the marking system which is familiar to the pupils. Moreover, the student learns how various data are recorded, and how such information may be used in planning subsequent assignments, in reporting to parents, and in conferring with a pupil about his progress. Analysis of the papers assists the student in discovering what the pupils do not understand and in what areas the major mistakes are most prevalent.

During the first days, the student of teaching has many fine opportunities to learn the best methods of approaching pupils informally, before school and at other times, to get acquainted, to secure pupil co-operation, and to discover individual interests. In this way, he discovers how he can contribute to the group discussions and how he can assist individual pupils with their problems. Through such activity he becomes a part of the total team and can begin to make a real contribution to the learning process.

not be overlooked. To illustrate, one student teacher reported that he was kept standing during the entire conference merely because someone had failed to provide another chair. In another instance, the conference was interrupted five times because it was held in the teachers' lounge, rather than in a more private place.

The temptation to discuss other students or various professors and their peculiarities may be great; however, professional ethics would indicate that such topics are not appropriate. Remembering the rules of courtesy and professional ethics will assist the student in adjusting to, and profiting from, such conferences.

18. Beginning Activities Provide a Gradual Introduction to Teaching.

During the first days of student teaching, the assumption of responsibility for some routine classroom activities serves to help the student get acquainted both with the pupils and the mechanics of conducting the work, and to make him feel that he is now a part of the total program. In assuming these responsibilities, it is helpful to follow the suggestions of the supervising teacher for observing, taking notes, and reporting to the teacher. Whatever the exact procedure for beginning actual work, the student teacher is expected to find worthwhile, helpful things to do, whether housekeeping or other routine jobs. Through performing such activities, he earns his place in the group, gains confidence in his ability as a teacher, and develops skill in performing teaching tasks, however elementary. The value of initiative and resourcefulness cannot be overemphasized; the alert student anticipates opportunities to serve.

As has been suggested, one of the first routine activities which may be undertaken with profit by the student teacher is assistance with the attendance records. Probably no other activity is as effective in aiding the student teacher to get

program of the school and understands the functioning of the curriculum in its fullest sense.

20. *The Student Teacher Uses Various Means to Become Acquainted with School, Home, and Community Activities.*

The prospective teacher should become acquainted with correlated community activities which have some bearing upon the work of the school. An effective program of student teaching with its laboratory experience is exploratory as well as developmental. Such a program will involve many activities outside the school walls and will require visits of many types.

Contact with homes and with community agencies has become a constant characteristic of the preparation program for the teacher. Even during the beginning days of student teaching, the prospective teacher needs to have opportunities to visit in the homes of the pupils, to become acquainted with parents, and to participate in various community organizations (as indicated in Principle 23, Chapter IV). Visits to homes are made only after complete and thorough planning with the supervising teacher. In certain instances, more harm than good may come from such visits if the student teacher does not understand the situation and is not properly oriented to the problems which may be encountered.

Securing data about the home and family requires very careful preparation on the part of the student teacher, with guidance from the supervising teacher; skill in eliciting the desired information and tact in approaching the parent are also requisites. It is far better not to get the information than to do it in a prying manner which might give offense. It is well to remember that the supervising teacher is the one legally responsible for the welfare of the children. The student teacher therefore studiously refrains from revealing to the parent any confidential information about his child or others in the group, except with the sanction of the supervising teacher.

19. *Curricular Problems Are Introduced Early in the Student Teaching Experience.*

The student teacher and the supervising teacher should understand quite clearly that routine matters must not consume the entire time of the student during the first weeks. As was indicated (in the discussion of Principle 16 of this chapter), one of the first steps to be taken by the student teacher is to familiarize himself with the courses and the supplementary materials. In addition, the student will profit by closely observing the teacher's methods of questioning and the results obtained, the making of assignments, and the manner in which new topics are introduced. These objectives will be beneficial in giving him a good idea of the way in which the program of study is developed.

Familiarity with the teaching-learning situation places the student of teaching in a position to note the functional grouping of children in the class, the roles the pupils assume, and the interaction among the group. Observation of how the various groups are formed, what their purposes are, and what they are doing enables the student to get the most from the valuable experience of participating in pupil planning sessions. Through these approaches, the student sees at firsthand the bases of pupil interests and comprehends more fully the nature of curricular problems and the importance of sound planning.

The student teacher soon recognizes the fact that there are many activities which are vitally associated with the business of school. Some of the activities are: recreation, study and library periods, field trips, clubs, student-council meetings, lunch periods, and parent-teacher meetings. These are as much a part of the total school program as are the actual daily lessons. It would be well for the student to be introduced to some activities as soon as possible so that he may associate himself with the ones which appeal to him most. Through participating in such activities, he soon gets the feel of the total

stand the particular pupil group in order to teach them effectively. He will need to study his pupils as carefully as if he were the regular teacher, and, in so doing, he learns to apply techniques he will use in the future.

Some of the significant questions which should be raised in studying the physical, mental, and social development of individuals and groups are:

1. What has already been discovered about the individuals or group?
2. What information is needed?
3. What are the sources from which necessary information may be secured?
4. What devices are available for securing desired information?
5. How can such information best be recorded and utilized?

The questions are so significant and so complex that the following chapter is devoted to treatment of the entire area of understanding the physical, mental, and social development of boys and girls, and to a discussion of the problems and techniques involved.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Isolate and analyze your personal problems.
2. Learn as much as possible about the problems encountered by other student teachers.
3. Assume your share of the responsibility in the teaching situation.
4. Do not become personally affronted by suggestions which are made to improve your work.
5. Believe in your ability to become a good teacher.
6. Become acquainted with the calendar of your school and with the daily schedule on which the school operates.
7. Be punctual.
8. Study the attendance records of the class or classes with which you are working.

The parent-teacher conference at school is used by some schools as a device for informing both home and school of the progress and developmental problems of a child. If such conferences are customary, the student teacher should prepare himself to participate, upon the invitation of the supervising teacher. He may write a summary of the conference and contribute it to the cumulative record, keeping in mind that much of the desired information about a family may be secured through the conference.

The student teacher should avail himself of every opportunity to attend civic meetings that would help him gain a better understanding of problems, attitudes, mores, and customs. Public forums, concerts, entertainments, and other similar affairs can mean much to him in imparting a better understanding of the occupational situation. Certainly, the student teacher should be interested and active in every activity of the school, whether it be an athletic event or a musical or a dramatic presentation.

21. *The Beginning Student Teacher Studies the Physical, Mental, and Social Development of the Individual Child and Groups of Children.*

The process of getting acquainted with all of the pupils as quickly as possible is extremely important. Indeed, the study of children is a major responsibility of all teachers, regardless of the subject area or level of specialization.

Some student teachers will have had previous experiences in observing, recording, studying, and analyzing information about boys and girls. Again the principle of readiness is an important factor, for the student profitably begins his child-study activities at the point where his previous experiences would prove most relevant. In other words, child-study activities are best built upon the foundation of previous experiences. Regardless of the nature and extent of his earlier experiences, however, it will be necessary for the student teacher to under-

confidence. Then develop a planned approach for improving yourself in these areas.

3. Carefully read the materials which have been developed in the school in which you are working. Write a full semester's calendar of school activities, indicating special days and events of importance.
4. Write in a thousand words or less the educational philosophy or point of view of the school in which you are working. Review the ideas and impressions with your supervising teacher.
5. After you have reviewed the cumulative records for the pupils in one of your classes, list the pupils who apparently have unusual problems. Review the impressions and interpretations with your supervising teacher.
6. During the first period of student teaching, select at least three pupils for careful observation with the thought in mind that you will compare their attitudes and performance with previous records. If you note any deviations from past history, attempt to determine what factors brought about the changes.

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9. Read the various publications of the school.
10. Learn the floor plan of the building so you can find your way without having to ask for information.
11. Study the cumulative records of the pupils with whom you will work.
12. Develop an understanding of the educational point of view and philosophy of the school.
13. Determine the manner in which the school views its community responsibilities.
14. Make arrangements for a conference with your supervising teacher.
15. Do not give the impression that you know it all; yet do not give the impression that you know nothing.
16. Help in correcting and grading papers whenever the opportunity presents itself.
17. Develop an understanding of the total curriculum of the school and particularly the grade or classes with which you work.
18. Visit the library at the first opportunity.
19. Become acquainted with the cafeteria, recreation areas, and other special rooms or areas.
20. Use tact and skill in eliciting information from parents and pupils.
21. Attend civic meetings in the community.
22. Participate in church and civic activities, as well as school affairs.
23. Observe the pupils carefully, noting their strengths, weaknesses, and distinctive characteristics.
24. Observe the physical, mental, and social development patterns of the pupils with whom you work.

PROBLEMS

1. Develop a definitive list of problems which you feel you need to consider in your initial days as a student teacher.
2. Go to the library and select several books which treat quite adequately the problems of developing security and self-

ACTION APPROACH

1. *What are the skills essential to learning to understand children?*
2. *What kinds of information are needed in order to learn to understand children?*
3. *From what sources may essential information about pupils be collected?*
4. *What techniques may be used to discover the needs pupils have in common? As individuals?*
5. *What kinds of tests will help the student teacher discover pupils' needs? How should each of the tests be used and interpreted?*
6. *How are home visits conducted and the results used in work with individual pupils?*
7. *How are case studies made and used in diagnosing pupils' needs?*
8. *In what ways is information collected for cumulative records? How are the records used in work with individual pupils?*
9. *What skills and techniques are needed for successful interviews and conferences with pupils and parents?*
10. *What is guidance? How is it related to teaching? What are the roles of the principal guidance functionaries?*

IV.

UNDERSTANDING

AND GUIDING

BOYS AND GIRLS

Good teaching depends upon effective human relations between teacher and pupil. Human relations are effective only when teacher and pupil know, understand, and respect each other. If a teacher knew all the things he should about a pupil, he would then know how to interpret and explain what the pupil says and does. 'Becoming acquainted with boys and girls means knowing them as persons, feeling concern for their problems, and recognizing their interests, aptitudes, and needs.

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22. *Essential Skills and Information Are Indispensable to Intelligent Understanding of Pupils.*

Don had reached the twelfth grade of school, despite problems and difficulties which had accompanied him throughout. Just that year, for example, he had without explanation surrendered his football uniform and quit the squad, despite the fact that the team was destined to go undefeated and he could have been first-string guard. Why? Even the coaches did not know. Don's English teacher had become interested in him because of the unusual attitude he displayed in her class. At times he was interested and co-operative there, but upon other occasions, he became disinterested and unco-operative, even hostile, in his relations to the teacher and other pupils. Why? Probably, no one really knew, not even Don.

Some teachers said that he was bright but lazy, while others declared that he was just "plain mean." Here are some of the comments they had entered in his cumulative record through the years:

Grade 3: Don shows little interest in school. He is agreeable when he wants to be but most of the time has to be urged to take part.

Grade 6: Reads a great deal. Is inattentive, shiftless, and lazy.

Grade 9: Sits quietly. Reads much. Think he is lazy. Have tried desperately to interest him. Apparently he does not care what happens.

Grade 11: Still reads much. When interested he helps with discussion. Hostile in manner at times. A very puzzling person.

Obviously, Don's teachers did not understand him. Probably, it was not all their fault; nevertheless, it raises some important questions. What kind of people would they need to have been in order to understand pupils? In what ways would the entries in the cumulative records be different had they better understood the pupils they taught? What information would the

It means that the student of teaching is better able to deal with the factors which influence pupils' lives, which condition their learning, and which affect their behavior.

Effective teaching depends upon the teacher knowing much about the pupils he teaches. The results of research studies of the problem indicate rather clearly that the best teachers are those who know most about their pupils. More specifically, the studies show: (1) that the amount of knowledge a teacher possesses about pupils is directly related to the rapport he maintains with them, (2) that there is a positive relationship between teaching effectiveness and teacher-pupil relations, (3) that pupils in groups well known by the teacher learn more than those in other groups, and (4) that many teachers do not fully understand their pupils and fail to realize the importance of knowing them. (The studies have been conducted by Bush, Brookover, Ojeman, and Wilkinson; *see Selected References.*)

Children are important persons who must be known and understood by the student teacher hoping to advance a program of instruction for them. Learning to understand boys and girls means that the student will have much more in common with pupils than the mere subject matter he teaches them. To learn as much about boys and girls as he needs to know, the student will require many more facts about pupils than he ordinarily finds available in the average school situation. Obviously, during the relatively short period of student teaching, the student will not be able to collect all the information that he would like, or perhaps even all that he needs, relative to the pupils in his group. The main accomplishment then should be to learn the principal techniques of collecting, recording, analyzing, interpreting, and employing the basic data about pupils. These techniques can then be applied and expanded in future teaching.

authority is undeveloped, or his assumption of responsibility for his own actions is lacking. Respect for pupils' personalities prevents the student teacher from rejecting them for what they do, because he understands their behavior is caused, and he seeks to discover the causes in order to promote salutary change. This should not be interpreted to mean that the student teacher overlooks or condones undesirable behavior. On the contrary, he tries to determine what is causing the child to misbehave and to provide the conditions, experiences, and influences necessary to bring about wholesome change.

In the third place, the student teacher who learns to understand children recognizes the differences which exist among pupils and knows that no two of them are alike. The differences among pupils range from physical characteristics, which are easily recognized, to variable rates of becoming concerned with economic problems, social relationships, and citizenship responsibilities, which may be difficult for the student teacher to determine and analyze. As has been said, differences exist among pupils because of variations in biological and social background and hence in rates of physical, mental, social, and emotional development. Important contributing factors are: home environment, general experiential background, hereditary background, aesthetic opportunity, economic background, and type of home community. Each pupil is the product of a unique background, and for this reason no two individuals approach a new experience in exactly the same way. To realize that differences exist among children and youth is indeed important in understanding them, but it is equally—or more—essential to know the type and range of differences which may occur. The student who espouses the principle that no two pupils are alike accepts all pupils as unique individuals, each of intrinsic worth.

As a fourth point, the student teacher who understands children learns to recognize and appreciate what the "normal" child is. It is hoped that the meaning of the word *normal* is not ambiguous and that the concept will not be clouded by the

teachers need in order to understand their pupils better? What skills and knowledge?

The behavior of children and youth is caused, and the causes are not, usually, simple and easily understood but are more often complex and difficult to comprehend. In the first place, then, the student of teaching who learns to understand pupils thinks of their behavior as being caused. He understands that the causes are rooted to some extent in the experiential background of the pupil, that they are conditioned partly by environmental factors presently impinging upon the child, and that they are influenced also by the hopes, interests, and aspirations of the youngster—or, in other words, by the individual himself. The student teacher realizes that, through knowing, analyzing, and interpreting intelligently the three groups of elements just listed, he may understand the child's behavior. Further, he believes that in terms of his understanding of the child he may be enabled to provide the experiences necessary to produce desirable change. Such a point of view differs rather sharply with the more traditional notion that the control of the behavior of children and youth may be accomplished through "ironclad" disciplinary measures without analysis of causes.

A second element in learning to understand children is the recognition of the worth and dignity of each boy and girl. Democracy in the school means that the worth of the individual is respected regardless of his origin or present status with respect to race, ethnic background, religious belief, social position, or cultural advantages. Democracy in the classroom recognizes the worth of every pupil in light of his ability and achievement. The student teacher who respects the personality of the pupil helps him to achieve his maximum development, to overcome obstacles to his full self-realization, and to attain his destiny as a person—all, of course, with proper regard for the collective welfare of others. No pupil is assigned to an inferior status in the group because his reading rate is low, his numbering skill is poor, his respect for proper leadership and

There is another very interesting and helpful basis for interpreting Jay's behavior. The question is raised, could Jay's reading comprehension be normal for *him*? The question may be answered positively, because the teacher can interpret on the basis of Jay himself. That is to say, the basis of interpretation can be shifted from the scale of performance of a particular group to the scale of behavior of the individual himself. In other words, it is normal for Jay to have poorer reading comprehension than Sue when Jay's behavior is the basis of comparison. On the other hand, Sue may easily be able to exceed the sixth grade norm if her performance is examined in light of her ability alone. In like manner, it is normal for some children to be more active than others; for some to read, write, spell, and figure on a lower level than others; for some to fulfill civic responsibilities in different ways from others; for some to arrive at explanations of the meaning of life and of the universe which differ from others'; and so on. The most successful student teacher understands the natural differences among children and youth and he does not accentuate the aspects involving these differences as he strives to help each pupil. He accepts pupils as they are, because his concept of normality is not based upon crystallized ideas of sixth grade performance, of eleventh grade curriculum, or of whatever.

Finally, the student teacher who is learning to understand boys and girls needs to know the more important factors about any particular pupil. Several sciences, including psychology, physiology, sociology, biology, anthropology, and education, contribute means to the collection and use of the information essential to a knowledge of a child. Certainly, the student cannot be expected to become an expert in each of the fields listed, but he does need a working knowledge of the basic principles and tenets. The relationships between the principles of the different fields become important elements in the securing and intelligent use of the kinds of information needed in understanding the pupil. The data considered essential are discussed briefly in the following outline.

argument advanced by students in different fields of psychology and mental hygiene. The more conventional view suggests that "normal" and "abnormal" behavior form a continuum and are best represented by the unimodal distribution curve. Others presuppose a dichotomy between health and pathology, for example, and contend that a bimodal distribution best represents the situation if the extremes of the dichotomy are made the end-points of the curve.¹ While no attempt will be made here to resolve the argument between the two groups, some important considerations are nevertheless pointed out for the student of teaching.

Perhaps an example will best illustrate the basic principle. Sue and Jay were members of a sixth grade class which had completed a standardized reading test. Sue's reading comprehension score was equal to the norm for the sixth grade, whereas Jay was comprehending at fifth grade level. The question is, should the teacher consider Sue's reading comprehension normal and Jay's sub-normal? The answer will depend upon the basis of interpreting the behavior of the child. Test norms indicate the average performance of a particular group—in this case, sixth grade children. Sue's reading comprehension may be considered normal because she is comprehending as well as the average sixth grader who took the test. The basis of interpreting Sue's behavior is to locate her on a scale based upon the performance of a particular group—sixth graders. Measured on the same basis, Jay's reading comprehension would not be normal. In other words, one way of determining normality of behavior is to compare the activity of the individual with the performance of a group having some fundamental characteristic in common, such as children of the same chronological age or grade in school.

¹ Klein, D. B., *Mental Hygiene*, Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1944, pp 5-14

Landis, C., and others, *Sex in Development*, Paul B Hoeber, Inc., New York, 1940, pp 82-83.

Maler, R. R., *Studies of Abnormal Behavior in the Rat* Warner and Brothers, New York, 1939, pp 58-59

Alport, A. L., *Personality*, Henry H

family; recreational life of family; adjustments of child in family group; economic status of family; and routine of family living. Reference is made in this chapter and in Principle 20, Chapter III, to various ways of securing the kinds of information listed. Securing such data requires skill and tact. Parental conferences and home visits must be carefully planned. Observation by the student of the supervising teacher performing such activities is most worthwhile. Revelation of confidential information to anyone, even to the parent or child involved, is forbidden.

School Achievement:

The past record of a pupil may illuminate his present status. Thus, the marks earned in past elementary grades or in past subjects in high school help to reveal the nature of the pupil. Extremely good and poor marks may be especially indicative of the unusual traits of a boy or girl. Strengths and weaknesses are also revealed by daily work over a period of time. Scores of periodic standardized and teacher-made tests are helpful indicators of achievement, as is a comparison of such scores with the record of daily work.

Abilities and Interests:

With experience, the student teacher may estimate a pupil's general abilities, but the results of intelligence and aptitude tests are usually more valid, reliable, and objective evidence of the individual's capacities. It is well to recognize the limitations of the tests in interpreting results and assisting the pupil to become self-directive. Moreover, abilities and interests are many times definitely related. Certainly pupils' interests determine the quality of their learning and hence become important avenues of motivation. Interests and hobbies often develop concomitantly, and a knowledge of them enables teachers to utilize them in teaching-learning situations.

Activities and Experiences:

The in-school and out-of-school activities and experiences of pupils may reveal aspects of their personalities

Health:

Information concerning the past and present health status of the pupil may indicate the need for remedial treatment or the cause of unsatisfactory mental, social, physical, and emotional development. Health status may be related to the difficulties some children have in making satisfactory adjustments and in succeeding in school. For example, faulty vision or hearing may cause difficulty in reading, poor nutrition may make some pupils tire more easily than others, or improper dental development may be related to speech difficulties. Teachers should be alert to the possible relationship of learning difficulties and physical defects.

Personal and Social Adjustment:

From research it is known that pupils who are superior in some traits are usually superior in all ways. Inferior traits are not usually offset by other superiorities. There may be variance, however, among a pupil's traits; hence, no one trait is a certain index of other traits. Observation of children in many types of situations is, therefore, necessary. Informal chats may reveal incidence of maladjustment. It is well to note children who tend to rationalize, those who tend to withdraw, and those who become aggressive when their needs are not satisfactorily met. Aggressive pupils are more easily recognized than those who withdraw, because of the demand for attention. Special effort may be necessary to discover the pupils who tend to withdraw. Personality tests and sociograms may help to reveal problems and serve as bases for comparing results of observations.

Home and Family Background:

Exploration of a child's out-of-school life should be extensive, because many of the causes of behavior lie in that area. The following list of items is suggestive of the kinds of information which are important: race, nationality, and marital status of parents; education of parents; size of family; age of others in home who work; religious life in

It does not seem wise to propose a single method of investigation because of the differences among communities and the various kinds of problems which will face local investigators. Nevertheless, brief descriptions will be given of ways of looking into the needs of boys and girls.

A survey of school-community problems in light of the needs of children and youth may be planned and conducted in different ways. A representative committee of school people and lay citizens may be organized to direct the investigation. The group should truly represent every major agency in the community, including such organizations and agencies as schools, government groups, youth clubs and organizations, fraternal orders, civic and service clubs, and religious groups. Efforts of the "committee type" are being exerted in Arlington, Virginia, Cedar City, Utah, Allegan, Michigan, Weimar, Texas, and many other places. Another way of conducting the investigation is for the school to organize courses or activities in studying the life of the community. Still another, is for different classes or school groups in areas such as science, health, or social studies to study various aspects of community life and living.

However the study of the community is organized and conducted, the investigation should indicate every aspect of the existing situation which relates to the educational needs of the children and youth served by the school. Some important areas are: the available resources of all kinds, the obstacles to school improvement, the economic condition, the status of the population, the problems of health, and the opportunities for boys and girls to live normal, well-rounded lives. Since all areas need not be studied simultaneously, provision must be made to consolidate the separate studies in order to prevent undesirable and unnecessary duplication and overlapping of effort.

Present-day teaching-learning situations, with their informality and opportunity for pupil participation, enable the student teacher to utilize personal observation in studying boys and girls. Observation is perhaps the most easily available and most

which would be difficult to discover in other ways. The curricular and cocurricular activities in which pupils participate are usually related to special interests and aptitudes which they possess. The experiences a pupil has at home, in the community, and at work, may reveal personal needs, family conditions, or vital interests of the individual. Such experiences many times serve as ways for pupils to explore or try out vocational and occupational avenues which may lead to future development. Analysis of the activities and experiences which a pupil likes and dislikes, and of those in which he succeeds, has difficulty, or fails, may help in understanding him.

It is, of course, impossible to say, and difficult to know, which particular datum will prove most helpful or insignificant in the understanding of a pupil or his problem. Usually, the more the student teacher knows about the child, the better chance there is of understanding him.

23. Information about Pupils Comes from Various Sources.

Learning to understand boys and girls necessitates the student teacher's knowing not only the various types of essential information but also the sources from which the data are available. Moreover, he must develop the appropriate skills and techniques for studying children and youth and, as well, master the research methods that make possible the study of individuals. Using such techniques and methods, the student searches among various sources of information for the ways in which boys and girls grow and develop and for the different factors which influence their behavior.

A good approach to the discovery of the needs of the children and youth of a community is to study the community itself. The literature is replete with suggestions for studying the community for the purpose of discovering educational needs. Some of the sources are indicated at the end of the chapter.

in the group. The process is described in detail in the American Council on Education's *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (see Selected References). Not only can the student teacher visualize individual and group patterns of acceptance and rejection, but he can, further, diagram the reactions, as shown in Figure 2. Such diagrams are called sociograms and are very helpful in understanding relationships within a group. However, the student teacher must remember that children's choices change, and that a child will choose a friend today for one reason and reject him tomorrow for another. Consequently, any one sociogram will not show a permanent situation. Rather, the teacher will need to make frequent sociograms to keep abreast of the changing situation.

The suggested sociometric techniques are applicable to both the elementary and high school levels. While it may not be practicable to draw a sociogram for a large group, or even for every class group, the procedure is helpful in discovering problem cases in small classes, homeroom groups, or groups in need of special guidance.

The understanding of pupils and the solution to some problem cases involve the use of various tests. Because the preparation of the student teacher will doubtless include a knowledge of testing, and because the selection and use of tests is discussed fully in Principles 62, 63, and 64 in Chapter X, the purpose here is to comment generally upon the use of tests in identifying pupils' characteristics and problems.

Perhaps the most commonly available standardized-test results to be found in schools are scores on intelligence tests. While these give teachers valuable information about the mental abilities of pupils, it is unfortunate that they are many times made the only estimates of pupils' capacities. Moreover, the tests usually administered are of the group type, and may not be nearly as accurate in specific cases as individual tests might be. In applying and interpreting group intelligence-test data for a particular person and for an important use, it is well

fruitful technique for studying pupils. Through observation the student is able to observe physical and emotional irregularities, to determine social characteristics, and to analyze behavior problems.

Is Mary afflicted with poor hearing? Does Harry have defective vision? Does Jane withdraw from the group and discourage association with other children? Can Jim control himself in a difficult situation, or does he go to pieces? Why is Tom aggressive? Observation will help the student teacher secure information pertinent to the solution of such kinds of problems. Perhaps observation is best used when the questions to be answered are as specific as those listed.

Effective observation is not only directed, but it takes place in various situations over a period of time sufficient to supply significant information. Pertinent indexes to development include: responses to work and play situations, comment during discussion and conversation, acceptance of responsibility, association with peers and with adults, expression of feelings of acceptance and security, revelatory expression in written work, participation in group activity, and reaction in a puzzling, or even frustrating, situation. Objectivity of observation may be increased by employing more than one observer and by supplementing findings by other methods of investigation.

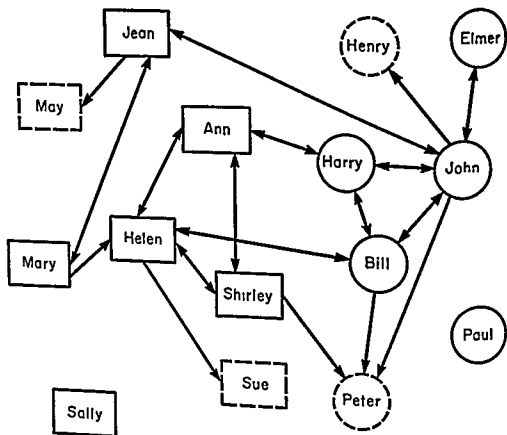
The attitudes pupils display toward each other, and the acceptance or rejection of a pupil by others in his group, may assist the student teacher in learning to understand the pupils he teaches. One very good way of studying the reactions of pupils to each other is through the application of sociometric techniques. Pupils are asked to write their names on a card and then to list the names of others in the group who are their very close friends, or whom they would choose as friends or work-partners. In addition, they are asked to list those whom they would not choose as work-partners. By analyzing the information it is possible for the student teacher to know the pupils which each child in the group accepts and rejects, and thus to chart the whole pattern of acceptance and rejection

to have available the results of an individual test administered by a specially trained tester.

Almost as commonly used as intelligence tests are standardized achievement tests, which are designed primarily to reveal the subject matter the pupil has learned. Most teacher-made tests, whether essay or objective type, are basically achievement tests and have the same purpose as those which are standardized. Recently the standardized tests have been broadened beyond the testing of the retention of factual information to include sampling of some of the following: social and civic competence, critical thinking, work habits, and social attitudes. Both teacher-made and standardized achievement tests have diagnostic value in furnishing information about pupils' difficulties in performing particular fundamental processes, comprehending directions, building study skills, understanding questions, and applying critical thinking.

It does little good for the student teacher to do as Ann ——— did when she said to Jerry, who had recently finished a test, "Jerry, your score on the test is one of the lowest in the class. It is much lower than a boy of your ability should have made. When are you going to settle down and go to work?" Even if Jerry sees that there is real need for him to go to work, he has received little help from the teacher in determining the specific processes he has not learned, in analyzing why he missed the particular questions he failed to answer correctly, and in understanding the basic principles underlying his mistakes. What Jerry needs is to know the specific errors he has made, to understand why he was wrong, and to learn the principles involved in the correction of the errors. This is the kind of help the excellent student teacher gives in analyzing the results of an achievement test with a pupil.

Measures of personality traits are sometimes called "personality tests"; however, they are not "tests" in the same sense that standardized achievement tests are, because they have not been brought to the same level of development. Actually, they are usually check list, rating scales, or inventories which are de-









-  *Boy present when relations listed*
-  *Boy absent when relations listed*
-  *Girl present when relations listed*
-  *Girl absent when relations listed*
-  *Unilateral relation*
-  *Mutual relation*
- Absence of lines indicates an isolate*

FIGURE 2 Sociogram of Sixth Grade Group

one method of studying pupils—a method which does not replace or eliminate the evaluations of those persons who know the boys and girls themselves. Tests must indeed be used and interpreted with care.

Home visitation has been indicated in Principle 22 of this chapter as a means of securing significant information about pupils. Especially does a visit to the home of a pupil help the student to learn about such factors as the socioeconomic status of the family, the home environment of the child, and the attitude of the parents toward the school. Probably home visits are used most in dealing with problem cases, but they also have great value in helping the student know each child represented in the class group. Many schools are requiring homeroom teachers to visit the homes of all pupils in their groups, and other teachers to make as many visits as possible during the term.

As indicated in Principle 22, the securing of data about the home and family of a pupil requires tact and skill in approaching the parents and eliciting the information. Certainly, the student teacher should not pry and give offense as Ruby ——— did when she visited the home of John ———. Ruby went to John's house to talk with his mother about his trouble with reading and to learn about the educational background of his parents, the economic level of the family, and the adjustment of John in the family group. "I'm Miss ———, John's teacher at the school," Ruby said when John's mother greeted her at the door, "and I want to talk with you about John's difficulty in reading and to get some information about his home conditions and family life." Ruby did not comprehend the significance of the cool invitation of Mrs. ——— to come in and be seated in the living room. On the contrary, Ruby plunged immediately into her conference with the mother, very much like an overworked social investigator making an inspection of a family for continued payment of unemployment and relief compensation. She questioned Mrs. ——— about which magazines they took, what kind of work Mr. ——— did, which income brackets would

signed to estimate the nature of the personal and social adjustment which a person is making. Unless the student teacher is clinically trained, he should not attempt to use instruments designed for clinical work. Most group measures of social and emotional adjustment, however, give the teacher helpful information and aid in detecting problem cases. Obviously, the pupil who cannot get along well with others, who is always interfering with the activities of his classmates, who withdraws from the group, or who becomes aggressive in the face of difficulty, needs special help. Even the model son, daughter, or pupil who never causes trouble at home or school may need more help than the boy or girl who continually gets into difficulty. Not every child, however, who makes an unfavorable score on a personality measure is maladjusted. On the other hand, individuals with poor scores should probably be investigated, because their trouble may in time become acute. The wise student of teaching learns to refer serious problem cases to the most competent people available.

Aptitude tests are becoming increasingly common. These furnish valuable information about the special abilities of pupils in fields such as music, art, science, mathematics, and languages. It is well to exercise caution in the selection and use of the tests, because some are limited in their objectivity, validity, reliability, and diagnostic value, while the results of many require special training to interpret. At best, aptitude tests should be carefully used and interpreted in light of other information available about the pupil.

The student teacher will find it necessary to select certain tests in order to meet specific test needs. The *Mental Measurements Yearbook* is one source of such assistance (see Selected References). Since the publication is revised periodically, it is advisable to consult the most recent edition in order to secure the latest test information.

In using tests to learn to understand boys and girls, the student teacher should recognize the limitations of the instruments, no matter how valid and reliable they are. Tests are only

one method of studying pupils—a method which does not replace or eliminate the evaluations of those persons who know the boys and girls themselves. Tests must indeed be used and interpreted with care.

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contain the family budget, how far both Mr. and Mrs. ——— had gone in school, and what John thought about the new baby. Here and there in the one-sided conversation, Ruby paused to express her opinion about the answers Mrs. ——— gave and about the effects of the home conditions upon John's skill in reading. Finally, when Mrs. ———'s answers were reduced to simple utterances of "yes," and "no," mumbled through the tension and gloom of her embarrassment, Ruby took her leave with a stiffly polite, "Thank you Mrs. ——— for the information, and I'll try to help John improve in reading."

Ruby had made many mistakes. She had been coolly polite instead of warm and friendly, she had rudely asked prying questions instead of subtly eliciting the desired information, she had embarrassed and cowed Mrs. ——— by doing all the talking and by evaluating conditions as the conference unfolded. Probably she had made an enemy or, at best, a hostile ally, instead of a friendly partner in the business of teaching John. Certainly she had created a poor attitude toward the school.

The excellent student teacher understands that home visits represent a most valuable potential avenue of teacher-parent and school-home relations. One poorly conducted home visit can do more to weaken relationships among teachers and parents, school and home, than all of the hard work it is possible to do with the child in the school. (Learning to make home visits requires very careful preparation by the student teacher and very close guidance by the supervising teacher.)

A very helpful source of information about a pupil is the various records that are kept during his entire school career. The records contain an accumulation of facts which have been preserved for future reference. Most of the kinds of data discussed in Principle 22 of this chapter are included in the permanent record system of practically all schools.

Cumulative records are found and are used in all schools which are concentrating upon understanding boys and girls. If the records in the school, or at the level, at which the stu-

dent teacher is working are not cumulative, he will find the effort to accumulate the important information about his pupils a most profitable learning experience and a valuable teaching aid. An adequate cumulative record usually includes: personal information—date and place of birth, race, home and family background, travel, work experiences; school history and achievement—schools attended, attendance, promotions, marks, honors, awards, failures; test data—intelligence, achievement, interest and personality inventories, aptitude; activities—membership in both in-school and out-of-school activities, hobbies, school offices and committees, community and leisure time activities; health information—physical examinations, health history, immunizations; other data—autobiography, copies of reports to parents, anecdotal records. In accumulating the information, the student teacher may find it helpful to follow a prepared commercial form or to design one of his own in order to speed the collection of data and to prevent overlapping of effort and duplication of information. Information which is available somewhere in the school hastens the completion of the cumulative record; however, it is sometimes necessary to draw upon original sources for crucial data.

The material presented in this chapter has been presented in an attempt to indicate the kinds of information to be accumulated—with the possible exception of anecdotal records. Anecdotal records attempt to show the representative ways in which boys and girls behave in different kinds of situations. They indicate the ways of acting, revealing tension, and expressing ideas which are characteristic of a child. The records consist of brief objective descriptions of what happened in critical events. In recording anecdotal records it is necessary to describe behavior accurately and objectively without evaluating results, passing judgment, or rationalizing causes.

Matters relating to the responsibility for records and their preparation and storage are best determined by the use made of the information recorded. Central filing and storage do not always prove to be efficient or effective because all school per-

contain the family budget, how far both Mr. and Mrs. ——— had gone in school, and what John thought about the new baby. Here and there in the one-sided conversation, Ruby paused to express her opinion about the answers Mrs. ——— gave and about the effects of the home conditions upon John's skill in reading. Finally, when Mrs. ———'s answers were reduced to simple utterances of "yes," and "no," mumbled through the tension and gloom of her embarrassment, Ruby took her leave with a stiffly polite, "Thank you Mrs. ——— for the information, and I'll try to help John improve in reading."

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ing for help from a counselor, psychiatrist, or other specially trained person. In fact, the student can prevent the harm which may come from his working with cases above his level of training by refusing to go beyond his depth and by recognizing when referral to specialists is necessary and advisable. His efforts to make case studies, however, will be rewarded by adopting the scientific attitude of investigation as he carefully studies the case records—including the data outlined in Principle 22—and as he applies the techniques of observing, testing, and interviewing.

The informality which usually characterizes the program of co-curricular activities is helpful to the student in observing the behavior of pupils under conditions different from regular class work. In many instances pupils reveal their most typical behavior only in activities which they organize and conduct, such as clubs, athletics, programs, assemblies, student government, newspaper activities, and various committee assignments. Through observing and guiding pupils in such co-curricular activities, the student teacher has an excellent opportunity to study boys and girls at first hand in nearly natural situations.

Perhaps the behavior of children and youth is more natural still when they participate in out-of-school activities. Free-time reading, movie attendance, radio and television entertainment, social participation, church membership and attendance, club activity, and work experience are important avenues for learning to understand boys and girls. It is possible to secure information about pupil participation in the kinds of activities indicated through observation, questionnaires, work records, and conferences with those who have the opportunity of observing the activity of pupils in community situations.

The individual conference or personal interview has unique value in fact-finding and in working with boys and girls toward solution of their problems. The conference is especially productive of pertinent information when teacher and pupil have established good rapport. Probably all teachers would agree that the most effective conference is one which grows naturally

sonnel concerned with a pupil may not have easy access to his records. In general, the home room teacher, core teacher, or other person who provides and co-ordinates special services for pupils should have charge of their records. Access to the records of a pupil should be limited to those school people who have responsibilities for him and are concerned with helping him. It is assumed that all persons who use pupils' records will treat the information in a professional manner, will be aware of the danger of prejudice, and will develop the ability to interpret data in an objective and unbiased manner.

In a program of mass education, emphasis must be placed upon the individualization of instruction or sight of the individual may be lost. If the individual pupils become lost in the masses, the school will likely fail to reach the objectives of American education. In studying individual pupils, the case study represents a most productive source of new insights and information for the student teacher. Although the case study is recognized as a technique of child study, it must also be described as a valuable source of information and help in understanding and guiding boys and girls.

An important feature of the case study is the case record, which contains all of the data bearing upon the problem under study. Thus, the case study becomes primarily an extension of the cumulative record. Obviously, case records are more complete and useful if the cumulative records of the school furnish comprehensive information about the pupils.

The "case-study method" follows the same pattern of objective investigation used in medicine, which involves analyzing data, identifying symptoms, diagnosing causes, prescribing treatment, and evaluating the effectiveness of the treatment. Many times the competencies demanded of persons doing case-study work are based upon special training which is not normally included in the preparation of the student teacher. Moreover, the classroom teacher ordinarily does not have the time to conduct a comprehensive case study. In the face of limited training and time the student teacher is amply justified in call-

other school personnel, physicians, school nurses, and scout-masters. Many times the help or information that persons outside the school can give in connection with a puzzling case will prove to be the key to the solution of the problem.

In addition to the sources of information about pupils already described, there are several others of a more or less informal nature which may be utilized by resourceful students of teaching. Autobiographies, when written as free narratives, give a ready history of the pupil and may furnish clues to interests and background factors worth investigating. A report of the books and magazines read as free reading material by the pupil may reveal the nature of his reading interest. A composition written on a selected subject may aid in understanding the pupil. Subjects such as the following may produce revealing results: "What I Want to Do after High School," "The Book I Like Best," "The Movies I Like Best," and "My Greatest Difficulty." A record kept by the pupil of all of his observations in connection with a specific subject sometimes throws light on the nature of his out-of-school experiences. Interview blanks and questionnaires may be designed which will produce information useful in understanding pupils.

No single source of information about pupils is adequate within itself, and the use of one usually leads to the inclusion of another. The student is cautioned to be tactful, and to use with discretion any source of information and all devices and techniques for securing personal data about boys and girls. (The goal to be reached is to secure necessary data through wholesome and valuable activities and through experiences of teachers, pupils, and parents.)

24. *Effective Use of Data Is Necessary to Intelligent Understanding of Pupils.*

Jane Johnson was a noisy ninth grader who gave every appearance of being as ill-mannered as her behavior was boisterous, and as uncouth as her dress was inappropriate for school

out of a need for co-operative attack upon a situation. However, it is unfortunately true that on occasion a pupil-teacher conference is not successful in achieving its objective. The chances of a conference succeeding are greatly increased when it is well planned, when its purpose is clearly established, at least in the thinking of the counselor, when adequate preparation has been made, and when the teacher has mastered the techniques required for successful counseling. Sometimes the use of an interview blank aids in focusing the conference and in securing desired information. If, however, its use interferes with the conducting of the interview, the effectiveness of the conference and of the blank may both be lost. The results of conferences are often valuable in handling old problems or in meeting new ones. For this reason, it is advisable to keep a record of all conferences and especially of those related to problem cases. The record is usually prepared after a conference is concluded and is preserved for use as a basis for action or study in connection with other conferences.

The parents of the boys and girls in the school represent one of the best sources of information concerning the pupils. Parental contacts of all kinds offer great possibilities for learning more about the children and the community. Visits or calls by parents to the school for information about their children, reports of pupil progress to parents, activities of parental organizations, and, as already indicated, visits to homes by school people are all avenues through which the school may learn parents' views of what their children are like and what they need. The understanding teacher can enlist and secure the aid of parents in the work of the school through individual parent-teacher conferences at home and at school, questionnaires, informal discussion groups, and work conference groups composed of parents, teachers, and pupils.

Conferences with persons other than parents who know the boys and girls are possible sources of significant facts which may reveal causes of behavior. Included among such persons are teachers, counselors, sponsors of co-curricular activities and

could prove to be the basic cause of Jane's trouble, and that another opportunity to approach the girl on the same problem might come too late to be of value. Consequently, Mrs. Ross made an inventory of the information she had been able to collect and thought through each factor she intended to investigate or bring into the conference, even to the anticipation of the reactions she expected Jane to make to different approaches and questions.

At length the desired opportunity to talk with Jane came when Mrs. Ross gave Jane a ride home from school. Because Mrs. Ross had anticipated such a possibility and had planned what to do, she was able to take immediate advantage of the situation. Jane Johnson's reaction was what Mrs. Ross had hoped it would be. The ensuing conversation was very revealing to the teacher and apparently helpful to Jane. They talked about her maturity, her loneliness, her effort to attract attention and win friends through flashy dress, loud talk, and rather uncultured behavior, and how these very efforts kept friendship from developing and maturing. Jane told of her family life, how all worked at different jobs during all hours of the day and night to operate the motel, and how the life she led caused her usually to be with adults and seldom with youths of her own age. She spoke often of her father and brothers but rarely of her mother. When she mentioned her mother she indicated that she did not feel that her mother was as fine as she could be or "...as nice as you, Mrs. Ross." She mentioned her marriage and divorce in a casual manner and as a matter of course in the lonely life she led without close friends of her own age and level of maturity. Her need for security and desire to be wanted were apparent in what she said.

The teacher listened more than she talked with Jane during the trip to her home. The conference was concluded very naturally, but not before Mrs. Ross took the opportunity to urge Jane to face the situation squarely; to recognize her maturity, but not to be alarmed about it; to capitalize upon her natural beauty by making changes in her dress and be-

wear. It was not difficult to see why she attracted the attention of her home-room teacher, Mrs. Ross, and why Mrs. Ross would easily observe the unattractive mannerisms Jane exhibited almost at first sight. Planned observation by Mrs. Ross over a period of time revealed that Jane was in many ways more mature than her sixteen years justified. Moreover, the teacher observed that Jane made few friends. At first some of the girls in Jane's group were attracted to her for one reason or another but soon they began to say unkind things about her and finally they dropped her altogether as a companion and friend. It was not too difficult for Mrs. Ross to see Jane's growing failure in human relationships and her resultant discouragement and unhappiness.

Resolving to help the child, Mrs. Ross began to search for the causes of Jane's unfortunate and objectionable behavior. A study of the girl's records revealed the following significant facts: one of three children—two older brothers; lived in a tourist court which the family owned and operated; home background—insufficient information to be conclusive, but indication of low cultural level and substandard social development; high family income, no family life—all members of family very busy operating the motor court twenty-four hours a day; poor to fair academic record; poor social adjustment in school—some teachers had labeled her "incorrigible"; married at age sixteen with parents' consent—ten months before entering ninth grade; annulled six months before entering ninth grade.

While the teacher felt that her study of the cumulative record had given some insight into possible causes of Jane's behavior, Mrs. Ross wanted to talk with Jane about the matter. Realizing that Jane's behavior, dress, and records indicated her desire for attention and friendship, Mrs. Ross wisely decided to talk informally with Jane at some opportune time rather than to arrange a formal conference. Even though the conference was to be informal, Mrs. Ross planned carefully every phase of her part of the interview because she knew that without adequate planning she might overlook some important elements which

What sources of information had she used? How did she get the information she needed? How did she use the information once she had it? The answers to the questions will help to illustrate how the effective teacher learns to understand and guide pupils.

In the first place, Mrs. Ross was a kind and understanding person. She was a good teacher. Good teachers are kind. She knew that the teacher most desired and loved by boys and girls has the qualities of a respected friend and companion. Every pupil must have a teacher whom he knows well, for whom he has respect, in whom he has confidence, and to whom he feels free to go for help with his problems. There is no substitute for kindness and understanding.

Second, because she was well prepared professionally, Mrs. Ross began methodically and objectively to look for causes as soon as she observed poor behavior. She did not blame or ridicule Jane Johnson, even though she had to control the girl in the group and work with her in the classroom. The teacher knew that the girl was trying to adjust to a new group of pupils and to a different school situation, and that her desire to be wanted, to be accepted, and to belong was fundamental and imperative. She also knew that with a pupil of Jane's apparent maturity, the adjustment to the situation probably meant the difference between staying in school or withdrawing. The teacher accepted the challenge of assisting the pupil to make the best possible adjustment to school work and social setting. Once Jane had failed in her effort to succeed or had been made to feel that she did not belong, the possibilities of achieving eventual satisfactory adjustment would have been greatly reduced.

In the third place, the teacher needed as much information as she could get about Jane—the type of person she was, the kind of life she led, the family background and relationships, the school experiences, the interests and abilities, and the successes and failures in and out of school. Mrs. Ross utilized as many sources as were necessary to get the desired information.

havior; to seek friends at school and through the young people's organizations at the church she sometimes attended; and, in general, to begin dealing with her shortcomings by positive efforts of her own.

Acting upon the cue Jane had given to a close relationship with her father, Mrs. Ross arranged an appointment with Mr. Johnson when she knew Jane would not be at the motel. The father confirmed all of what Jane had revealed about her need for security, for companionship within and outside the family, and for status among her peers. He had seen the conditions developing but had not known what to do. In fact he had consented to Jane's early marriage because he had thought it would help to meet her needs for human companionship. Mr. Johnson was grateful for Mrs. Ross's interest in Jane and agreed to help all he could in assisting Jane to make suggested adjustments.

Because Jane was enrolled in Mrs. Ross's home room, the teacher knew she could help the girl continuously with problems of dress, voice, behavior, and the like. The teacher felt that assumption of responsibility and activity in groups would help to meet Jane's need for security and her desire to be wanted. Consequently, Mrs. Ross resolved to interest Jane in becoming active in appropriate organizations and activities in the school and community and in taking a part-time job.

The plan was followed. Each person concerned, and especially Jane Johnson, worked hard at his part in the program. By the end of the year, Jane had gained almost complete control of her general behavior. She had assumed the responsibility of work and had found her place in the activities of young adult groups. Mrs. Ross completed Jane's cumulative records and resolved to continue work with Jane through conferences with her teacher next year.

There is little doubt that Mrs. Ross had helped Jane Johnson start rebuilding her life toward usefulness and happiness. Why had Mrs. Ross been able to help Jane? What had she done that resulted in help to the pupil? How did she know what to do?

presented in the professional literature under the generic term "guidance." However, presentations are found under a variety of topics such as personal guidance, vocational guidance, educational guidance, social guidance, moral and spiritual guidance, and economic guidance. The student of teaching should not become confused by the apparent divergence of the guidance movement. Guidance is a unified process and should be considered and administered as such. The different approaches to guidance are actually efforts to deal with extremely complicated problems of adjustment.¹ In other words, the problems faced by a person have many impending elements which involve the individual and his environment, and guidance is concerned with the growth of the whole person. Because the student teacher has a composite responsibility for the child, he will attempt to provide guidance to further the total growth and adjustment of the individual.

Conceivably, the student teacher may be faced at this point with a dilemma regarding the nature and meaning of guidance. Is guidance to be interpreted as a philosophy or as a program? Is it any different from the practice of the pupil-centered school? Is it not the same as good teaching, which is guidance-like in nature? Upon reflection it may be seen that, from one point of view, all teaching is guidance, and the philosophy of guidance should pervade the whole educational program. From another viewpoint, a special guidance program is needed in order to provide for the individual needs of pupils which may not be met through a program of mass education.² The nature and purpose of guidance is to assist the pupil in recognizing his abilities, limitations, interests, problems, and needs and to realize his potentialities to the fullest extent.³ The pupil needs help in understanding the problems which face him, whether they are academic and related to progress in a subject-matter field, or social and concerned with his daily contacts with other persons.⁴ He needs help in recognizing opportunities, in choosing activities both in and out of school, in analyzing the kinds of choices he makes, and in determining objectives and goals

Observation was planned and deliberate, a study of available records was fruitful, the conference with the pupil was helpful in understanding her better and in learning more about her, and the home visit confirmed much of what had been learned and opened the way for concerted action at home.

Finally, the teacher prescribed treatment or formulated a plan of action based upon the analysis of data and diagnosis of causes she had made. As the plan was followed, continuous evaluation was made by the teacher and pupil in formal and informal ways and changes in activities and experiences were accordingly made.

The products of child study will not result in intelligent understanding and guidance of boys and girls unless the data are put to effective use. Data will be used effectively when the student of teaching has developed understandings, knowledges, and skills that give intelligent direction to the study of children and youth. Development of a high level of competence in the techniques of studying boys and girls demands continuous study and activity in various educational endeavors, including intensive study of a few normal pupils; participation in in-service education programs provided by schools; work in voluntary study groups, summer workshops, and clinics conducted by school systems and educational institutions; and participation in the work of professional organizations.

25. *Guidance Helps Pupils Become Increasingly Self-directive.*

Promotion of the growth of the individual is the focus of studying children and youth. It is pointless to make extensive investigations of boys and girls unless the studies are to be used to help young people in solving their problems of adjustment at various stages of their growth. The help that teachers, guidance workers, and psychologists give children and youth toward solving their numerous problems of adjustment is now

program, to provide counseling service for special cases, and to help prepare regular staff members to perform the guidance activities expected of them. Since the school of today attempts to provide opportunities for the children of all the people, the scope of guidance has been extended, and the problems incident to rendering such services have added to the difficulties of the school. The difficulties of guidance are further increased by the spreading of responsibilities for guidance among various functionaries who have unlike kinds of training and experience and who view the nature of guidance from different frames of reference. Moreover, guidance cannot be rendered effectively without the co-operation of all members of the staff and a clear understanding of the purposes to be achieved, the activities to be performed, the methods to be used, and the particular responsibilities and functions to be assumed by all concerned.

The organization of an effective guidance program attempts to provide for the totality of problems arising from the complete guidance process. Various ways of organizing guidance programs have been tried with varying degrees of success. One type of organization is designed to serve the entire school system at all grade levels; another attempts to meet the needs of individual schools. At present, the trend is to regard each school as a unit in the planning of a guidance program within the general framework established by the state and local school systems. Under such a plan the central administration holds the principal of each school responsible for developing his guidance organization according to the accepted policies of the school system. Thus, central office personnel serve as consultants to the principals and staffs of local schools. By such means the local school is enabled to develop a guidance organization adaptable to its own needs and resources.

The diagram (Figure 3) is designed to show the plan of organization for guidance services in a school unit. The plan is adaptable to various educational levels and to different-sized schools, with their corresponding limitations of the resources

of which he is capable. The need for guidance stems from the conditions of life which face pupils and the purpose of guidance is to assist them to solve the problems of the life they live!

The concept of guidance which envisions the individual making his own decisions in terms of his goals is a somewhat radical departure from the situation in which teachers make decisions for pupils in terms of goals recognized only by the teachers. The person who supplies the guidance helps in clarifying problems and points out related problems or factors which the pupil may overlook; but the recognition and acceptance of a problem is done by the boy or girl who is responsible for making the choice. Thus, the final goal of all guidance is intelligent self-direction by the pupil. Opportunities to promote growth in the ability of pupils to direct their own activities are present in every classroom. The excellent student of teaching utilizes such opportunities in making pupils increasingly responsible for the intelligent self-direction of their actions.

26. *The Organization for Guidance Co-ordinates the Functions of All Concerned.*

The program of guidance which is developed in a school is a product of the concept of guidance which the school staff holds, of the needs of the pupils, and of the resources available for developing the program. It is entirely possible and highly probable that the guidance program developed in a small rural school or in a large urban one will be equally effective. Regardless of the type of school situation in which it is developed, the program of guidance will be worthwhile only if it includes teachers, guidance specialists (if they are employed), and members of the administrative staff. Guidance as a responsibility of the persons indicated presents many difficulties. Some school staffs seem to take the responsibilities of guidance for granted and perform only those services which are rather closely integrated with instruction and administration. Other schools employ guidance specialists to organize and direct the

basis or to assist with special cases through an "on-call" arrangement. The absence from the organization of some of the functionaries indicated in Figure 3 may not impair the quality of guidance services rendered. The purpose of the diagram is to indicate the flexibility which exists in the organization for guidance in different school situations and the various types of guidance functionaries commonly found and the relationships which exist among them.

The administrator of the school has a very important place in the guidance program. While the focus of his responsibility lies mainly in the area of organization, he is responsible for promoting the morale of the pupils and teachers, selecting and recommending well-qualified personnel, seeing that adequate guidance materials are available, assigning guidance duties to the various functionaries, and exercising general supervision of the total guidance program, including in-service education for all guidance personnel. In a small school the principal will probably direct as well as organize the guidance program. Regardless of the particular guidance responsibilities assumed by the principal, an effective program of guidance is achieved by bringing about a positive feeling in the group concerned. Unless the principal believes in the guidance program and gives it his active support, it is not likely to succeed in adequately meeting the needs of the pupils.

If a guidance co-ordinator is included among the functionaries, his duties would approximate those of a principal who directs and supervises the functioning of the guidance program. More specifically, the co-ordinator of guidance serves as chairman of the faculty guidance committee if one is included in the organization; sees that the program provides both individual and group guidance; assists teachers in planning guidance activities; directs testing, placement, and follow-up programs; supervises the operation of the records system; counsels special cases referred by teachers; sees that the services of available specialists are properly utilized; and generally co-ordinates the work of all guidance personnel. Until recently the

available for providing guidance services. In some schools the student teacher will find all of the functionaries indicated in the diagram existent and functioning in the organizational arrangement for providing guidance. In other schools, one or

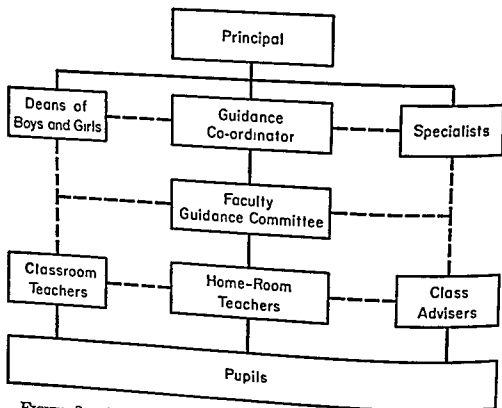


FIGURE 3. A Plan of Organization for Guidance. Solid lines indicate line and/or administrative relationships. Broken lines indicate staff and/or advisory relationships.

several of the functionaries may be absent from the guidance organization. For example, few schools can afford an especially trained full-time guidance co-ordinator. In such instances the principal or a teacher who is released part-time for guidance work serves as the co-ordinator of the program. Likewise, guidance specialists, such as especially trained guidance counselors, psychiatrists, and physicians, are not usually found as regular staff members of a school. The services of such specialists, however, may be made available to the school on a part-time

cases. In other words, teachers refer serious cases of maladjustment to the counselor after preliminary study or recognition of symptoms indicating the need for special attention.

In organizing for guidance many schools establish a faculty guidance committee or council. Usually, the committee is composed of a member of the school administrative staff, who may be the principal, assistant principal, or guidance director; the deans of boys and girls; and one representative of the teaching personnel of each of the grades in the school. The committee functions as a planning and policy-making group. For example, it may initiate or conduct studies of the needs for guidance, of the adequacy of the present program, or of the effectiveness of particular services. On the basis of its findings, the committee may recommend to the administrative officers and faculty that changes be made or policies formulated in order to improve the total program of guidance service. In practice, the committee is a service agency to the teaching and administrative staffs in that it seeks to assist them in providing effective guidance for the pupils of the school.

In the past, the classroom teacher has not been directly included in the organizational arrangement for guidance. In recent years, however, recognition has been taken of the vital role of the classroom teacher in guiding boys and girls. Especially important is the contribution of the classroom teacher when learning is viewed as guidance, because the basic assumption underlying a guidance-learning theory is that adjustment is learned. In other words, the pupil must learn the responses which are adequate to produce behavior that is acceptable in his environment. The desired responses are the learnings or changes of behavior which result in the satisfactory adjustment of the learner to the impingements of his environment. It is in the classroom, then, that the needs of pupils for guidance are usually first revealed, that the teacher becomes aware of the needs, and that instructional activity becomes interwoven with guidance problems. The importance of the teacher as a guidance functionary is magnified by the fact that instruction re-

student teacher could expect to find the guidance co-ordinator functioning only at the level of the central office of the school system or in large secondary schools. Recent research indicates, however, that there is a definite movement of guidance into the field of elementary education, with a corresponding need for guidance co-ordinators. In a recent major study, for example, the National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers (*see Selected References*) found that 81 per cent of the elementary schools included in the study felt the need for a co-ordinator of guidance. Thus, the student of teaching at all levels is likely to function in a guidance program co-ordinated by a specialist.

Deans of boys and girls are usually found only in fairly large secondary schools. When the deans are included in the plan of organization for guidance, their duties normally include counseling pupils with respect to participation in co-curricular activities, selection of subjects and programs of study, solution of social and disciplinary problems, and choice of vocation and college. They may also assist with testing, placement, and follow-up work.

The plan of organization of the guidance program should provide for the services of certain specialists, such as psychologists, psychiatrists, dentists, nurses, physicians, special counselors, social workers, and visiting teachers. If it is not possible for a school to secure the services of such specialists on a part-time or full-time basis, they may be made available as needs arise. Most pupils will not need to be served by all of the specialists indicated because the parents will see that the children's needs are met. It seems wise, though, for the modern school to make available the necessary resources for detecting maladjustments in their early stages, safeguarding the welfare of pupils whose families are not alert to the discovery of trouble, and assisting teachers in the efficient handling of problem cases. For example, the special counselor does not attempt to counsel all of the pupils in a grade or class, but he offers technical advice to teachers and assists them in studying special

planning, study methods, entrance requirements to college, vocational choices, and personal hygiene and appearance.

Obviously, pupils and teachers must both be given the opportunity to plan carefully and to participate fully in the work of the home room if it is to achieve its rightful purpose. When the home room is considered no more than an administrative unit for the handling of routine matters such as announcements, attendance, and reports, the student of teaching cannot expect to provide the kind of home-room guidance service indicated. Prospective teachers need to be prepared to function in the home-room situation, particularly if they are planning to work on the secondary level in either departmentalized or core-type programs. As home-room teachers, they should look forward to the inclusion of home-room duties in their teaching loads and to the help and stimulation of the administrative officers of the school. When the kinds of conditions set forth characterize the home-room unit, it becomes one of the most significant guidance agencies within the school.

In some schools (principally secondary schools) the guidance functions of the classroom and home-room teachers are supplemented by class advisers, who nearly always function in an administrative capacity. While the major concern of the class advisers is with matters of attendance, records, and minor problems of discipline, they may be called upon to provide educational and vocational guidance and to care for social activities of pupils. Although the advisers may render very useful guidance services, it is believed that an effective program of guidance cannot be provided if it is organized around such functionaries. As has been indicated, the classroom and home-room teachers remain the most important functionaries in the plan of organization for guidance, and either they perform the guidance that must be offered, or it will not be provided.

quires an understanding of boys and girls and a diagnosis of their needs.¹ One of the major research findings of the past few years is the necessity for the teacher to function as a guidance worker if he is to be completely effective. The function applies equally to teachers in both the elementary and secondary schools and has received recent emphasis with respect to the work of teachers at the elementary level. This should not be interpreted to mean that the teacher can perform all the necessary functions of guidance in the school, or that all teachers can or will execute guidance activities equally well. On the other hand, the fact remains that much of the guidance service that must be offered will be performed by the classroom teacher or it will not be provided in the school.

When home-room teachers are included in the school organization, as they are in most secondary schools, they usually assume considerable responsibility for providing guidance services. One of the most vital guidance functions performed by the home-room teacher is the security he provides for the pupils assigned to him. He is the person to whom the pupil can turn for help with various kinds of problems. Theoretically, the home-room teacher stands in the same relationship to the welfare of the child at school as the parent does at home.

The significant relationship of the home room to the other units of the guidance program places the home-room teacher in a strategic position to acquire an intimate knowledge of the pupils in the group. Classroom teachers, special counselors, and other guidance functionaries continuously report observations, diagnoses, and recommendations concerning pupils to the home-room teacher, who takes steps to initiate a plan of action to aid the children involved. Group guidance activities are planned to supplement the individual guidance and counseling provided in the home room. Group activities are usually planned around topics which have a personal appeal or a place in the life and program of the school community. Topics forming the bases of group guidance activities often include social etiquette, consumer buying, boy-girl relations, educational

or elementary boys and girls to see the important relation of present studies to future educational plans. Pupils need help with such problems and, as has been indicated, the guidance they receive has to be based upon a knowledge of their abilities, interests, and needs. Educational guidance is also concerned with the discovery and exploration of new interests, the development of a wholesome curiosity in various areas of learning, and the exploration of different areas of the curriculum.

Vocational guidance is a third important guidance service which most schools provide for pupils. Many professional educators believe that vocational planning should begin when the child first enters school. They recognize that the immaturity of elementary and junior high school boys and girls makes the expectancy that they can make satisfactory vocational plans unreasonable. However, teachers on the lower levels can do much to develop serious thinking by pupils about future vocational selection and preparation. Through the discussion of the nature and kinds of different areas of work, the taking of field trips, the use of audio-visual aids, and the study of man's attempts to make a living, teachers can begin to direct the pupils in their search for solutions to their vocational problems.

While vocational guidance at the secondary level is still somewhat general in nature, it is mainly concerned with the development and analysis of interests and abilities which point toward certain types of vocations. For example, assistance is given the pupils in making tentative vocational choices and in discovering the capacities necessary to enter the particular vocations which have been chosen. Occupational information relative to the tentatively chosen vocations is made available concerning the kinds of education and preparation required, the location of the nearest sources providing the required education and preparation, the cost of the training, the working conditions which may be expected, the hours of work, the remuneration anticipated, the personal satisfaction derived from the service rendered, and the opportunities for advance-

27. *Guidance Is a Service Function.*

The function of the guidance program in the school is to help the pupils solve their problems. Contrary to what many administrative officers and teachers believe, the purpose of the guidance program is not to simplify the problems of administering the school and thus to produce a smoothly operating educational unit. While it is recognized that a well organized and effective program of guidance contributes to the solution of administrative problems and assists the teachers in performing various activities, the fact remains that such contributions are merely desirable outgrowths of the central function of guidance, which is the rendering of aid and service to pupils.

The services received by pupils in the normal operation of a good guidance program are so numerous that it is not practicable to attempt a complete description of them in this volume. However, illustrations will be given of the important types of guidance services usually extended to pupils at both the elementary and secondary levels. One of the most important of all guidance services is the orientation of a pupil when he enters a school for the first time. The initial entrance of a child into a school calls for his adjustment to a new environment. It has been said that some of the basic needs of children about desires to be wanted and to feel secure. Probably, such needs will not be experienced by the child more strongly than when he enters a school for the first time. He needs to become acquainted with the building and physical facilities, to learn the names of officials and teachers, and to know the schedule of his activities and the rules and regulations of the school. Above all he wants a warm, friendly reception by classmates and teachers, who demonstrate that they are glad to have him and who thus give to him the security which comes from being accepted as a member of a group.

Educational guidance is a second important service of the guidance program. It is unrealistic to expect high school pupils to choose activities which will adequately meet their needs,

cedures to a study of the pupils concerned. The search for causes of trouble demands knowledge and understanding of the boys and girls and of the environmental factors acting upon them. Diagnosis thus includes analysis, interpretation, and evaluation of the factors and conditions which have determined the present status of the child. Once causes are known, steps may be taken to remedy the difficulty through the making of changes necessary to restore the child to a normal status. In the diagnosis and treatment of severe cases the student teacher may need the help of especially trained guidance functionaries.

The student of teaching who functions effectively in understanding and guiding boys and girls believes first in their potentialities and second in the possibility of developing and utilizing these potentialities for growth and progress. It is essential to understand that only through the desire and activity of the person can the integration of personality be achieved and that it can not be forced or imposed from without. Effective guidance depends upon the recognition by the student teacher that the child or youth is a unique individual who at his stage of maturity needs help in achieving the goals of optimum personal and social development.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Think of the behavior of children as being caused partly by experiential background, by environmental factors, and by the individual himself.
2. Recognize the worth and dignity of each boy and girl.
3. Accept each child as he is and recognize the uniqueness of his personality.
4. Recognize that no two pupils are alike.
5. Learn to recognize and understand what the normal child is.
6. Use the basic principles of education and related sciences including psychology, physiology, sociology, biology, and anthropology to gain a knowledge of the child.

ment. Many schools provide in-school try-out experiences for pupils in all possible areas so that there will be some understanding of the abilities needed before final choices are made. Other schools arrange work-experience programs with out-of-school agencies in order for pupils to gain practical experience while attending school. Still other schools provide vocational placement services and follow-up programs after youth have been employed. Actually, these latter named services were the original purposes of guidance in the schools but they have been pushed aside somewhat by the other aspects of guidance which have developed through the years. Important as each is, none of the various guidance services should be permitted to monopolize or drain the resources of the guidance program in such a way as to lessen the effectiveness of the other guidance activities included in the guidance program of the school.

Adjustment services are the final category of important guidance functions to be discussed. Perhaps, no guidance service other than adjustment brings to a focus upon pupils' problems the various matters concerned with understanding and guiding children and youth which have been presented and discussed in this chapter. The adjustment function of guidance in a broad sense is concerned with the changes necessary to produce desirable responses of pupils. In some cases the individuals concerned may be able to make the necessary changes but in most instances the changes have to be made for the pupils. The student teacher needs to be concerned with the problems of personal and social adjustment of pupils if he is to aid in the development of children and youth who are to become capable of actively participating in a democratic society.

Overconfidence, intolerance, lack of self-confidence, irresponsibility, boredom with leisure time, unsocial behavior, and poor relations with others are evidences of the need of pupils for help in making satisfactory adjustments to varying situations. Recognition of the symptoms of maladjustment by the student of teaching calls for skill in applying scientific pro-

23. Recognize that no single source of information about pupils is adequate within itself.
24. Plan carefully for conferences with pupils and parents even though they may be informal in nature.
25. Remember that good teachers are kind.
26. Begin methodically and objectively looking for causes as soon as you observe poor behavior of pupils.
27. Formulate a plan of action for a pupil based upon an analysis of data and a diagnosis of causes of poor pupil behavior.
28. Evaluate continuously the plan of helping a pupil and make indicated changes in activities and experiences.
29. Think of guidance as an effort to assist the pupil in recognizing his abilities, limitations, interests, problems, and needs and to realize his potentialities to the fullest extent.
30. Refer to specialists, whenever possible, serious cases of maladjustment after preliminary study or recognition of symptoms indicates the need for special attention.
31. Provide a warm friendly atmosphere for pupils—especially new ones.
32. Help boys and girls to see the important relation of present studies to future educational plans.
33. Be concerned with the problems of personal and social adjustment of pupils.
34. Believe in pupils' potentialities and in the possibility of developing these for growth and progress.
35. Remember that only through the desire and activity of the person can the integration of personality be achieved and that it cannot be forced or imposed from without.

PROBLEMS

1. Make a sociogram of your class or of a group in it. Examine carefully the relations existing in the group and plan to work with individual pupils in the ways indicated to be necessary and desirable.
2. Administer an intelligence test to a group of pupils. Score

7. Know the kinds of data considered basically essential to understanding the pupil and the sources from which the information may be collected.
8. Develop the necessary and appropriate skills and techniques for studying children and youth.
9. Master the research methods that make possible the scientific study of individuals.
10. Learn how a survey of school-community problems may be planned and conducted in light of the needs of children and youth.
11. Practice making pointed objective observation of pupils' behavior. Make appropriate records of what you observe.
12. Apply sociometric techniques to your study of pupils' reactions to each other.
13. Interpret the results of intelligence, aptitude, and achievement tests as well as measures of social and emotional adjustment in light of all the information available on the pupil.
14. Learn to prepare for and make visits to the homes of pupils for the purpose of securing information about them.
15. Learn how to collect and record information for pupils' cumulative records.
16. Be sure to make anecdotal records entirely objective.
17. Use the data of cumulative records in assisting pupils with individual problems.
18. Utilize the case-study method as a valuable source of information and help in understanding boys and girls.
19. Do not hesitate to call upon specially trained personnel such as counselors and psychiatrists in studying children and their needs.
20. Do not overlook out-of-school activities as a helpful source of information concerning the behavior of boys and girls.
21. Use individual conferences with pupils as means of finding facts in helping boys and girls solve their problems.
22. Cultivate contacts with parents in your efforts to learn more about their children.

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the tests and interpret the results. Use the results in working individually with the pupils.

3. Perform Problem 2 using a standardized general-achievement test.
4. Make a case study of a pupil. Interpret the findings and use them in working individually with the pupil.
5. Accompany your supervising teacher in making a visit to a pupil's home. Prepare for the visit as if you were going alone. Relate the results of the visit to your work with the pupil involved.
6. Assist in collecting and recording information for the cumulative records of your group. Interpret and use the records in working individually with selected fast, average, and slow learners in the group.
7. Prepare for a conference with a pupil concerning the meeting of an evident need. Hold the conference, record the results for the cumulative record, and follow up the conference to observe the effect upon the pupil's situation.
8. Observe a conference between your supervising teacher and a parent concerning the meeting of a pupil's need. Prepare for the conference as if you were to conduct it alone. Record the results for the cumulative record and follow up the conference to observe the effect upon the pupil's situation.
9. Outline the plan of organization for guidance in the school in which you are doing your student teaching. Describe the roles of the various guidance functionaries.

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the function of the school is to improve and extend the quantity and quality of learning through providing experiences for boys and girls which will make a maximum contribution to their education.

Learning is the *raison d'être* of teaching. In other words, the main purpose of teaching is to facilitate learning. One important criterion for evaluating teaching is the efficiency of the learning that has taken place. Thus, the objectives, methods, and techniques of teaching must converge toward learning as the goal to be achieved. In a sense, the conditions and bases of learning become cues for teaching. All of teaching is, or certainly should be, based upon assumptions relative to the nature and operation of the learning process.

Understanding the learning process is one of the most important matters facing the student of teaching. Certainly, he cannot afford to have less than a clear grasp of the assumptions regarding the nature of learning. In attempting to clarify his thinking the student of teaching will no doubt pose such questions as: What is learning? How may it be defined or the process be described? Is it concerned with memorizing and reproducing factual information? Is it additive in process? Is it promoted best through difficult and disagreeable tasks? Do both the teacher and the pupil look upon learning experiences and subject matter as identical elements?

The purpose of the present discussion is to assist the student teacher to achieve clarity in his thinking about learning. Since understanding is the sole objective to be presently achieved, defense and justification of presentations will be omitted from the discussion, or at least reduced to minimum efforts.

28. *The Successful Teacher Understands the Nature of the Learning Process.*

At the outset, it should be recognized that the exact nature of learning is not completely understood. This fact is not difficult to comprehend when it is remembered that the process

ACTION APPROACH

- 1 What is learning? How may it be defined or the process be described? Is it additive in process?
- 2 How may learning be facilitated? Is it promoted best through difficult and disagreeable tasks?
- 3 What are the implications of the nature of learning for the teacher?
- 4 What is meant by learning to do by doing? By saying there is no learning without experience?
- 5 How may "pupil needs be defined? What research has been done to reveal pupils' common needs? What are the common needs of boys and girls which have been revealed?
- 6 How may pupils be involved in determining their needs and in planning ways of meeting them?
- 7 What are the areas necessary to the development of a functional instructional program?
- 8 How may functional guides to teaching be developed and translated into curricular experiences and activities?
- 9 How may learning be made meaningful to boys and girls?
- 10 How may the teacher provide for significant differences among pupils?
- 11 How may learning be evaluated and appropriate changes be made in the instructional program?

V.

DIRECTING LEARNING

THE SCHOOL has been established by society in order to provide education for its people on a planned and organized basis. Pupils attend school in order that they may undergo the kinds of experiences from which they may derive the learnings that society deems necessary and desirable. Learning then, is the primary purpose for which children are sent to school. And

of the person to act differently, or to change his behavior in such a way as to relieve the tension or restore the state of equilibrium with environmental conditions. The immediate purpose or goal to be achieved by the learner is the satisfaction of his need. If the new activities on the part of the learner achieve this purpose, that is, meet his need, the experience is satisfying and tends to be repeated. The experience then results in different behavior of the person as he incorporates the new activities into his "way" of behaving. Learning is then said to have taken place, since the behavior of the individual has changed.

Perhaps an illustration will help to make clear the brief and, perhaps, oversimplified explanation of the learning process which has been presented. The need for security is recognized as one of the basic needs of human beings. One way in which a child may gain security is by learning the security brought through the peer group. As he associates with his peers, the child must change his behavior in such a way as to achieve that acceptance, relationship, and status in the group which lead to security. The activities performed by the individual in attempting to achieve the desired acceptance and status with the peer group will no doubt be multiple and varied. For example, the child may engage in bizarre behavior in order to attract attention and become recognized by members of the group. It is also possible that he may attempt to win the admiration and respect of the group by seeming mature, through resorting to smoking, swearing, staying out late, or some other activity which could be classified by his peers as "grown-up." At length, the child learns which activities both meet his needs and achieve the goal of establishing and maintaining security within the peer group. And since his resultant behavior has become changed, learning is considered to have taken place. In other words, the child has learned how to act or how to change his behavior in order to get along with his fellows, and to enjoy the security which comes from being accepted by one's peers and from having status in the group.

of learning is not directly observable. That is to say, it is impossible to observe directly the mental or neural activity which takes place within the human organism at the time learning is occurring. The operation of the thinking process can be observed only indirectly, through what the individual does or says. In other words, mental activity is largely observable only through comparing the behavior of the person at present with his behavior in the past.

Because of the difficulties of analyzing the actual process of learning, there has been much speculation as to its true nature. The inference and speculation which exist have become the bases for several theories of learning which concern themselves with such questions as: What is learning? How does it take place? Why does an individual learn one thing rather than, or in preference to, another? How may retention be explained? Forgetting? How does a person put to use whatever he has learned? Discussion of the theories is not presented, because the present effort is designed to focus the attention of the student upon attaining a concept of the whole process of learning, rather than on a group of specific phases of the problem. In order to facilitate anything like a workable understanding of the process of learning, the characteristic features of the process are presented without regard to any particular theory. It is hoped that such an eclectic approach will aid the student in developing an individual point of view toward the work of teaching. At the possible expense of oversimplification and understatement, the statements which follow are presented in the hope of achieving such purposes. However, the list of Selected Readings should be consulted by any who wish to study various theories of learning.

In Principle 5, Chapter I, it has been pointed out that each human individual lives in an environment with which he interacts, because he simply cannot escape it. Interaction with the environment results in impingements of it on the individual that produce tensions or disturbances in his normal state of adjustment or of equilibrium. There is then a need on the part

overt. On the other hand, 'when the learning involves the development of an understanding, an appreciation, or an attitude, the activity of the individual is not easily identified, because mental activity is not directly observable.) Nevertheless, the individual *has* been active, for, again, it is only through the actions of the learner that learning can take place. When overt behavior is involved, the actions of the learner are easily noted, and even his efforts to initiate, guide, and direct his own learning can be observed. However, in the case of covert behavior, such as formulating a concept or developing an attitude, the actions of the learner are not directly observable. Reliance must then be placed upon what the individual does as a result of his learning or the extent to which he acts in a way which shows the development of the particular learning involved—that is, the concept or attitude set out to be learned.

The educational process cannot wait until psychology explains exactly how learning does take place. In the interim the school must continue to operate. Meanwhile, the student of teaching is assured that learning is an active kind of phenomenon, and that it comes from within the individual and through his interaction with the people and things which surround him. (In the school, the teacher and the materials of instruction are important parts of the learner's surroundings.)

29. *Learning Begins Where Pupils Are.*

(Learning begins with the pupil's problems, not the teacher's.) It grows out of the needs and interests of the pupil. The teacher who stands in the rarefied atmosphere of an academic mountaintop and urges the pupils to come up where he is will not be very successful. He will succeed in promoting learning only when he understands the real problems faced by the boys and girls in his group.

Learning is not a matter of pupils performing for teachers. (It is a process in which the learners must be actively engaged.) Learning is an experiencing by the learner, and without ex-

Related to the brief outline of the learning process presented earlier, the illustration bears out the following points:

1. Being located in a peer group, the child has little or no choice except to interact with that aspect of his environment.
2. As he associates with his peers, feelings of insecurity which may develop are exemplary of tension and/or disturbed equilibrium.
3. A need is created through the desire for approval, acceptance, and security in the group.
4. The purpose or goal to be achieved by the child is to satisfy his need through proper activity or changed behavior.
5. As various attempts to achieve the goal are made through performing different activities, some of the resulting experiences actually accomplish the purpose and the need for security is met.
6. The behavior of the individual is now different than it was and the new ways of behaving represent the learning which has occurred.

Learning, then, is a change in the behavior of a person which is produced through his own activity. An important implication of this statement and the process described which is significant to the teacher is that learning is an active, continuous process, not a passive one. (This means that an individual learns through activity, that is, through experience which results from interaction with the environment.) Thus, no person can learn for another—each individual must learn for himself. Others may assist the child in learning and they may guide his efforts to learn, but they cannot learn for him.

Attention has been called to the activity and experience of the individual involved in the learning process. In fact, it has been said that one learns to do by doing, by activity, or by experience, and only in this way. The student usually is able to understand that a person learns by doing when a motor skill is being developed or, in other words, when the activity is

to cover the same ground with all pupils, except to adjust matters as necessary in special cases. Moreover, the same teachers regard pupil conformity to given classroom conditions as evidence of learning. They easily assume that the pupil who conforms best to the teacher's directions learns best. Actually, pupil conformity to a prescribed program is no assurance that he is learning. He may not grow as he engages in the daily lock-step routine of meeting the teacher's assignments. Teaching and learning are infinitely more complex than giving and following sets of directions.

The first job of the student teacher, then, is to determine where the pupil is and what his needs are with respect to the planning of a program to meet them. Whether it is developing number concepts in grade five, ability to read in grade two, or social sensitivity in grade twelve, the approach is the same. To begin with the learner where he is means that the teacher knows him well enough to determine the level he has reached. It also means that the teacher is able to determine where he is now as well as where he was yesterday or last week. As indicated in Chapter IV, many of the techniques effective in learning to understand boys and girls involve the pupils in planning the activities to be performed. "Textbook teaching" and "hearing lessons" do not usually include the most effective teaching and learning experiences for the realization of the objectives of the school. If pupils are to become competent citizens they must have opportunities to practice good citizenship here and now. Such opportunities are not likely to be provided in the traditional "assign-study-recite" pattern of school experience. In such a pattern the teacher does all the planning, and the pupil is permitted to engage in only the "study-recite" aspects of the program. It is much more profitable educationally when the student of teaching includes the pupil in the learning activity from its beginning to its end. It then becomes possible for the pupil to share in the planning of the activities, to participate in performing them, and to assist in evaluating the results

perience there is no learning.' Since no two learners interpret or reconstruct experiences in identical ways, learning is for each individual a process leading to a unique outcome. For example, two persons, even though they are identical twins, will have unique learning experiences when placed in the same situation. Suppose they are listening to a vocalist sing a song. The sound waves must be received and reacted to by the two listeners before learning can occur. Because the two persons have different receptors, receive nonidentical vibrations, and make unlike recognition of the value of the music produced, their learning is uniquely individual, even in such a stereotyped situation. No two individuals have the same perceptions of similar situations. Because this is true and because the learner accepts and acts upon what he perceives, perception becomes a fundamental variable element in learning. 'Thus, learning varies within a group, and the learners of the group will not learn identical things from a given situation, or in the same time period.'

In light of what has been said, learning is seen to begin with the learner where he is, and cannot begin at any other level.) It derives its impetus from his interests, needs, and drives, and it takes its direction from the elements and factors upon which he places value. The track coach, for example, who begins the teaching of the high jump does not place the crossbar at a level higher than the jumper can jump. 'Rather, he begins the process with the bar at a height which the learner can reach comfortably, in order to concentrate the activity of the jumper upon the fundamentals of body manipulation and co-ordination involved in making the jump expertly.' In other words, the coach begins with the learner at the latter's level of development and maturity in high jumping. There is no difference in method in beginning with learners in the school. Real learning begins on the maturity levels of the boys and girls in the teaching-learning situation.

Regardless of grade level, some teachers believe that perhaps the easiest thing to do is to make a uniform assignment and

The truth of the statements presented appears more clearly when it is remembered that if past experiences were not utilized in the learning process, the learner would always have to start at the beginning, because learning begins with present experience. The student teacher need not expect that his pupils will profit by experiences beyond their present level of understanding by mere exposure to them. Only through the accumulation of experience and a process of development can deeper levels of insight, understanding, and learning be achieved.

The main implication for the teacher from the concepts presented is the relationship of his role as teacher to the learning which takes place in his classroom. As he interacts with his environment, the child experiences the need to respond in numerous ways to the different aspects of the teaching-learning situation. In reality, the child's need to respond is varied and multiple, and it may be as complex as it is possible to imagine. The child either responds in a satisfactory way, or he fails to solve the problem or meet the situation in a desirable and satisfying manner. When such a failure occurs, he experiences a need to make an adequate adjustment or response. In other words, he has a need to act differently or to change his behavior in such a way as to promote achievement of his goal. This means he must perform those activities and undergo those experiences which serve his need. It is through performing these activities and having these experiences that the child learns. The activities and experiences, however, will be meaningful and significant to the child only insofar as he understands them to be leading him to the realization of his goal. It is only in this way that his learning will be goal-centered and purposeful.

Thus, the role of the teacher is to provide and condition the environment surrounding the learner, so that the latter's interaction with it will lead toward his goals and meet his needs. As indicated, such an environment and atmosphere will consist, basically, of a program of activities and experiences through which the child builds patterns of response which

achieved. With respect to the method indicated, John Dewey has given sensible advice in these words:

It is the business of the educator to study the tendencies of the young so as to become more consciously aware than are the children themselves what the latter need and want. Any other course transfers the responsibility of the teacher to those taught. Arbitrary "dictation" is not a matter of words or of form, but consists in imposing actions that do not correspond with tendencies that can be discovered within the experience of those who are growing up.¹

The best way to ensure a curriculum based on children's needs and interests is to get the pupils to help develop it. Only by knowing, insofar as possible, where his pupils are can the student of teaching effectively include them in the work of planning their learning experiences. The principle of beginning with the learner where he is does not deny the student teacher the right to his teaching standards and purposes but it asks that he adjust them to reality.

30. *Teaching Is Directing the Experience of Pupils.*

Learning has been emphasized as a process of changing behavior through experience. Such an emphasis implies that the amount of learning and the ease with which it is accomplished are in direct proportion to the multiplicity and variation of the experiences of the learners. Thus, learning is a progressive and continuous process. Because it is progressive in nature, learning involves the reorganization of experience in such a way that what is learned has new meaning here and now and furnishes a foundation for future learning. Moreover, what is being learned must be adapted to what has been learned. In like manner, that which has been learned in the past must be related to what is being learned in the present.

¹ *The Activity Movement*, Thirty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1934, p. 85

needs must both be known, and that the teaching methods and materials must be planned and developed in terms of these needs. It is imperative, therefore, for students of teaching, teachers, and all others who work with boys and girls to understand the factors which influence learning and to go beyond a cursory knowledge of the problems of pupils to a thorough knowledge of their needs. "Pupil Needs" are defined in the *Dictionary of Education* as:

Everything necessary to insure the optimum development of the potential abilities of a pupil—intellectual, physical, moral, emotional, and social—both in relation to his present interests, abilities, and level of achievement and in relation to the probable future demands of the individual and of society.²

Pupil needs are by definition conceived as broad inclusive elements which embrace both temporary and permanent problems and which encompass the present and probable future aspects of a person's life. From this point of view, all boys and girls, not merely those children often referred to as "problem children," have needs to be met. In other words, the suggested approach to teaching takes account of the fact that no one group of pupils has all or even a majority of educational needs which must be met, while other groups have no needs. The point of view suggests that the needs of children are not those of a few persons in a simple, homogeneous group, but that all children and youth of a heterogeneous school population have needs which cut across biological, racial, social, and economic lines.

For educational purposes, the needs of boys and girls may be considered as those arising from the interaction of the individual and his environment, as indicated in Principle 5, Chapter I. To revert to the terminology used there, some members of the profession are agreed that the needs of children and

² By permission from *Dictionary of Education*, by Carter V. Good. (Copyright 1945) McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, p. 271.

satisfy his needs. And the activities and experiences of the child are understood, appreciated, and accepted by him as worthwhile only if he sees them as avenues of approach to reaching his goals. Thus, teaching operates to assist learning through the provision of significant learning situations built upon meaningful activities and purposeful experiences designed to meet pupils' needs.

Effective learning takes place when the pupil identifies and accepts purposes and makes the effort himself; the teacher helps to direct the activity that leads him to the achievement of his goal. Whether the goal is learning to read, to write, to figure, or to get along with people, the results achieved will reveal the individuality of the learner. Teaching, then, involves determining the learning potentialities of each child, knowing how to relate new to old experiences at different stages of development, manipulating the environment in order to bring forth each talent and skill, determining the combination of elements necessary to stimulate each child to respond to the fullest, and recognizing the kinds of experiences that will function in the life of the pupil by meeting his needs and assisting him to achieve his goals.

31. *Effective Teaching and Learning Are Directed toward Meeting Pupils' Needs.*

One approach to the solution of many of the problems of teaching and learning is based upon recent psychological and educational research, which makes it apparent that there are *causes* for learning and behavior, and that the causes are not simple in nature but complex in character and function. In this approach cognizance is taken of the fact that each pupil is a unique and indivisible unit and has individual needs to be met which are disparate from those of other people, and that, at the same time, each individual has some needs in common with other persons. In order to guide the learning of boys and girls effectively, it is believed that their common and individual

by home, school, and community if the most effective results are to be obtained. Important among many means of identifying characteristics and of determining individual needs are: observation, anecdotal records, standardized tests of all kinds, teacher-made tests, rating scales of social and emotional maturity, physical examinations, health records, interest inventories, vocational intention questionnaires, descriptions of work activities and homelife conditions, case studies, conferences with pupils, parents, and other teachers, autobiographies of pupils, sociograms, and personality inventories. In other words, free use is made of every available legitimate source and means of securing information about boys and girls as individuals.

Through the years many studies of the needs of children and youth have been conducted and are reported in the literature. Several of the studies are indicated below in order that the student teacher may observe more directly the application of the general methods of studying needs which have been outlined. Social conditions are analyzed and implications drawn for education in such volumes as *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy* (Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1941) and *Education and the Promise of America* (George S. Counts, The Macmillan Company, 1945). Surveys of the problems and needs of children and youth are reported in *Time on Their Hands* (C. Gilbert Wrenn and D. L. Harley, American Council on Education, 1941). Individual developmental needs are studied in *The Child from Five to Ten* (Arnold Gesell and Frances L. Ilg, Harper and Brothers, 1946) and in *Child Development and the Curriculum* (Arthur T. Jersild, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946). Implications of the needs of boys and girls for the development of the curriculum are drawn in *Growing up in an Anxious Age* (National Education Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1952) and in *Planning for American Youth* (National Association of Secondary School Principals, Revised Edition, 1951). While no attempt is made here to review the

youth are determined by the biological organism and by the cultural environment. The interaction theory expressed would appear to include the influences on the pupil of both biological and cultural factors. The point of view is taken that if education is truly a social process it should operate to improve the interactions of pupils with their environment.

The discussion implies that an educational need should be identified and steps taken to provide the individual with the means of satisfying it. In other words, if the pupil's behavior is determined by attempts of the organism to relieve tension, and if needs are conceived as activating forces in behavior and conditioners of effective living, then the meeting of the needs is obviously the desirable goal of teaching, learning, and of education, itself.

In Principle 5, Chapter I, it was stated that the function of education, and thus the purpose of the school, is to make pupils effectively functioning members of our society. If the purpose is to be achieved, the school program must be based upon learning experiences which will meet the needs of boys and girls. The educational needs of boys and girls can be met adequately only through an intelligent planning of the curriculum; the curriculum is composed of the purposeful activities and meaningful experiences provided by the school to achieve its objectives; and these activities and experiences can be planned intelligently only if the educational needs of the pupils are known. The first step, then, in applying the suggested approach to teaching and learning is to discover the educational needs of the boys and girls to be taught.

The identification of the needs which the boys and girls have as individuals may be accomplished in several ways. Because the problem is discussed fully in other sections of this volume, especially in Chapter IV, only brief mention in summary form is made at this point of the ways in which teachers may study and identify the individual needs of pupils. The aid of the children and youth themselves and of their parents is necessary and must be co-ordinated into a unitary attack on the problem

the application, a mechanistic approach and the finality of educational determinism must be avoided, especially in considering the nature of the needs themselves.

The second step in applying the suggested approach to teaching is the planning and development of school experiences designed to meet the needs of pupils which have been determined. The studies of needs, then, become in reality the means not only of discovering the needs themselves but also a basis for building a functional school program. Only when teachers do the kind of teaching and develop the type of instructional program which will satisfy these needs can the purposes of the school be realized. The development of such a program calls for careful analysis and planning in five major areas. The areas are: (1) the development of a sound educational philosophy, (2) the statement of the educational objectives to be achieved, (3) the provision for activities and experiences (curriculum) designed to achieve the objectives, (4) the evaluation of the program in terms of the objectives, and (5) the redevelopment of the program in light of the results of evaluation.

It is distressing that many teachers, supposedly well trained and experienced, in point of time at least, do not seem to know what they should be teaching and why they should teach it. The student of teaching cannot hope to be a good teacher unless he is clear as to the points indicated. In other words, he needs to formulate his own educational point of view—he needs to develop his philosophy of education so clearly that he not only can state it but can put it into effect in his classwork.

An outline for developing a sound philosophy of education was presented in Principle 5, Chapter I. Within the framework of the philosophy developed, the application of the present theory to teaching may be approached through considering some of the implications of the six basic needs listed within this chapter. In drawing implications, emphasis should be placed upon the outgoing aspects of the theory, as well as upon the ego-centered approach. Implications, then, should be viewed

studies or even to list a majority of them, those listed should prove helpful to the student in applying the present theory to his work with boys and girls.

Efforts to identify the needs of pupils through the application of any of the methods indicated will result in the collection of large amounts of information. Thus, there is need for a systematic method of collecting, organizing, and recording data in order to prevent omission of necessary information and duplication of effort. Records are most helpful when they are complete, cumulative, and concise. The aim is to build a comprehensive picture of the problems and needs of the entire school population so that the total job facing the school may be known. Included in the picture, but clearly distinguishable, should be the needs of the various groups of pupils as they are organized in the school and of the individual pupils within the groups. This identification of the needs of the different groups and individuals provides the only way whereby teachers may plan a program to meet common and individual needs.

From the analysis and interpretation of the data collected through the various studies of the needs of children and youth have come descriptions and lists of the basic needs. Although some differences exist among the needs listed by students and writers in the field, there is also considerable agreement. The basic needs usually listed are:

1. The need for security.
2. The need for belonging.
3. The need for achievement.
4. The need for love and affection.
5. The need for understanding.
6. The need for freedom from guilt and fear.*

In applying the present approach to teaching and learning, the student teacher must recognize fully the basic needs of the child in the process of growth and development. In making

* Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank C., *Basic Principles of Supervision*, American Book Company, New York, 1953, p. 169.

5. The need for understanding:
 - a. Learning to accept the views of others.
 - b. Learning to share the problems of others.
 - c. Learning the significance of group responsibilities.
 - d. Learning the importance of various groups.
 - e. Learning to understand civic responsibilities.
 - f. Learning the importance of basic skills.
 - g. Learning to be socially acceptable.
6. The need for freedom from guilt and fear:
 - a. Learning to express emotions acceptably.
 - b. Learning to relieve tensions in an acceptable manner.
 - c. Learning to share troubles understandingly.
 - d. Learning the appropriateness of compromise.⁴

The student teacher will recognize that the foregoing list is not all-inclusive but exemplary of the type of study necessary to intelligent planning of educational experiences which will meet the needs of pupils. It is necessary for the student of teaching to draw the proper implications of the needs theory for the particular level at which he is working and for the stage of maturity of the children he is teaching. For example, in making specific application of the need for security, the teacher of elementary school children needs to draw implications in terms of security brought about through family groups, peer groups, and other group relations. On the other hand, the teacher working with adolescents at the secondary school level must draw additional implications for developing security along financial, economic, social, and vocational lines. In like manner, teachers at various levels will make the appropriate interpretations and applications of the other basic needs in their work.⁵

The second area in the planning and development of experiences to meet the pupils' needs is the statement of the educational objectives to be achieved. The criteria which the student

⁴ Adapted from Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision*, American Book Company, New York, 1953, pp. 170-171.

⁵ *Ibid*, pp. 171-172.

from a nonegocentric orientation. Some important implications follow.

1. The need for security:
 - a. Learning the interpersonal nature of security.
 - b. Learning what can be expected in intergroup relations.
 - c. Learning to value intangibles.
 - d. Learning the security brought about through family groups, peer groups, and other group relations.
 - e. Learning the security brought about through economic efficiency.
 - f. Learning the security which comes through sharing.
2. The need for belonging:
 - a. Learning to find a place in various types of groups.
 - b. Learning both leadership and followership responsibilities.
 - c. Learning to discriminate in what is worthwhile in belonging.
 - d. Learning to help others to meet their needs for belonging.
 - e. Learning respect for self.
3. The need for achievement:
 - a. Learning to appraise and appreciate achievements of others.
 - b. Learning the best time and way to make contributions.
 - c. Learning the value of group achievement.
 - d. Learning to help others in achieving.
 - e. Learning the value of social, mental, and vocational achievement.
4. The need for love and affection:
 - a. Learning appropriate times and ways to express love and affection.
 - b. Learning to include many persons in the patterns of love and affection.
 - c. Learning to be unselfish in affections.
 - d. Learning to identify behavior indicating need for love and affection.

functional, expressed his views in his essay, "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth." The following quotation contains his statement of educational function.

How to live?—that is the essential question for us. . . . In what way to treat the body; in what way to treat the mind; in what way to manage our affairs; in what way to bring up a family; in what way to behave as a citizen; in what way to utilize all those sources of happiness which nature supplies—how to use all our facilities to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others—how to live completely? And this being the great thing needful for us to learn, is, by consequence, the great thing which education has to teach. To prepare for complete living is the function which education has to discharge. . . . It behooves us to set before ourselves, and ever to keep clearly in view, complete living as the end to be achieved; so that in bringing up our children we may choose subjects and methods of instruction with deliberate reference to this end.⁶

Spencer implemented his general statement of educational purpose by proposing a classification of "the leading kinds of activity which constitute human life" and thus determining the principal objectives of education. His classification is presented in order of importance as arranged by him:

1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation.
2. Those activities which, by securing the necessities of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation.
3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of offspring.
4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations.
5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.⁷

⁶ Spencer, Herbert, *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical*, D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1861, pp. 11-12.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 13-14.

of teaching may apply to guide him in thinking through the major objectives which both he and the school should strive to achieve are concerned with two important aspects of living: the implications of the philosophy of our democratic way of life and a study of the activities of an effectively functioning member of our democratic society. At the point of actually determining which objectives should be established and worked toward, what has been said concerning educational philosophy and study of needs should prove helpful. In other words, the educational philosophy which the student has formulated will have of necessity been influenced by the conceptions which he holds of his American way of life. In addition, the studies of needs and their educational implications will have been conditioned by the student's understanding of the general behavior and particular activities deemed essential for the good democratic citizen. Thus, the application of the criteria governing the determination of objectives gives basic consideration to the steps already taken in formulating an educational point of view and in discovering and identifying the educational needs of children and youth.

In determining the broad general objectives of the program of work the student is urged to become acquainted with the efforts of educators to put into words and actions what the schools should accomplish. This should not be interpreted to mean that the student should accept the thinking of others without reservation or reflection; rather, he is urged to understand what others believe about the purposes of education and then to formulate his own notions of the goals of the schools and the role of education in our society. From the various efforts which have been made to define the functions and purposes of education two are presented in summary form—one by Herbert Spencer, the great English scholar, and the other by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators.

Herbert Spencer, who believed that education should be

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Aesthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

The Objectives of Human Relationship

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Co-operation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person observes family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

The Objectives of Economic Efficiency

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice. The educated producer has selected his occupation.

Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

The student teacher should not slip into the error of believing that the suggestions of Spencer are of little or no value today because they were made almost a hundred years ago. Rather, the proposals become all the more valuable when the student recalls that only in recent years has the educational profession looked with favor upon plans to orient the school program toward functional objectives.

Another worthwhile effort to formulate general educational objectives has been exerted by the Educational Policies Commission. The group identified four major areas of educational objectives: (1) Self-Realization, (2) Human Relationship, (3) Economic Efficiency, (4) Civic Responsibility. Since the objectives have been widely accepted in many professional circles, and because it seems evident that they will continue to exert influence upon educational thinking, the full list is presented:

The Objectives of Self-Realization

The Inquiring Mind. The educated person has an appetite for learning.

Speech. The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.

Reading. The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.

Writing. The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.

Number. The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.

Sight and Hearing. The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.

Health Knowledge. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

Health Habits. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and pastimes.

to determine those primary purposes toward which he will direct his own work.

The third step in planning to meet pupils' needs is the development of the curriculum. While the expression "development of the curriculum" has probably confused the student of teaching on many occasions, it is actually not a difficult concept to comprehend. In reality what is meant is the development of educational experiences and activities which will achieve for the pupils the stated objectives. Such a statement is perhaps better understood when it is remembered that "curriculum" means all the meaningful experiences and purposeful activities provided and directed by the school to achieve its objectives. It has been said that education takes place through experiences resulting from the interaction of the individual and his environment. What is desired at this point in program development is the structuring of the educational environment so that by interacting with it the pupils will have the particular experiences which will bring about the desired changes of behavior as indicated by the objectives which have been formulated.

What the student teacher needs are functional guides to teaching—guides which indicate the kinds of experiences which boys and girls should have. It is most likely that the student will find his recently formulated major objectives very general in nature and not functional in the sense of indicating specifically the kinds of pupil activities which lead to attainment of goals. For example, it is not difficult to subscribe to the development of civic responsibility as a worthy educational objective, but, until this generalized value or ideal is reduced to curricular experiences and activities that actually develop civic competence and responsibility in boys and girls, the objective is not effective or functional.

It is most necessary, then, that the student teacher break his general objectives into smaller more tangible parts—reduce them, so to speak, to effective behavioral functions. It is at the present point in program development that the student needs

Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.

Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

The Objectives of Civic Responsibility

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.

Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.

Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation. The educated citizen has regard for the nation's resources.

Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contributions to the general welfare.

World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a co-operating member of the world community.

Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic Literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.⁸

After the student has pondered the objectives presented and others which have been formulated he needs to formulate for himself the major objectives of the instructional program and

⁸ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1938, pp. 50, 72, 90, 103.

program development. Certainly, it should not be considered a compartmentalized segment of the operation, but rather an integral part of the developmental process. Evaluation is concerned with answering such questions as: Do the objectives adequately reflect the needs of the pupils? Are the curricular experiences meaningful to the boys and girls in terms of needs they recognize? How well has the schoolwork realized the objectives or met the needs? How can the results of appraisal throw light on the program and on the individual problems? The process recurs in a continuing cycle. Evaluation is not further discussed in this section; the subject is considered so important a part of the instructional program that the whole of Chapters X and XII are devoted to it.

The fifth phase of designing a program of instruction to meet needs is called "redevelopment of the program." What is meant by "redevelopment" is the rethinking, replanning, or redesigning of the instructional program in light of the results of evaluation. Actually, the last question in the series listed immediately above is the key to the process of redevelopment. The fundamental questions to be answered are: What has evaluation revealed about the program which should be changed and, hence, improved? How can pupils be assisted to realize their basic needs more clearly? What different curricular experiences and activities should be provided in order to meet the needs of pupils better? How can the experiences and activities be made still more meaningful to the boys and girls? These are the kinds of problems with which redevelopment of program is concerned. Like evaluation, the process of redevelopment may not be separated from total program development or left until last to be begun. It too goes on in continuing cycle.

Application of the suggested approach to teaching and learning is concerned basically with two vital problems: determining the common and individual educational needs of children and youth which must be met, and developing an instructional program adequate to meet the needs which are identified. The student of teaching applies the approach most effectively when

to get specific with respect to such questions as: What am I going to do with and for the girls and boys in my class? For example, in my fourth grade group or in my secondary English class: Why am I going to do these things? Exactly what are the needs to be met? What are my purposes? What are the pupils' purposes? What are the specific experiences and activities necessary to meet the needs? What subject matter, skills, and knowledges should be included in the experiences provided and in the actual classwork? Then comes the need for organizing the work program into large blocks and smaller units. Chapter VI deals more specifically with the problems of planning.

The student of teaching in the elementary school makes the application specifically in terms of the level of maturity and development of the particular group and individuals concerned, and of the kinds of experiences the children have had. Thus, the program planned for a third grade group contains basic elements different, in degree at least, from those designed for a sixth grade class. The student planning work in a departmentalized secondary school program deals with similar problems of level of maturity and past experience, but he includes the special elements of the subject field concerned, such as English or algebra. For example, he faces the problem of deciding the subject matter, skills, and knowledge which are to be included in the educational experiences of a ninth grade group in English or algebra.

The important thing—the thing that matters—is what the teacher does with his group of pupils at the present moment and from day to day. Furthermore, what the teacher does will not achieve objectives—or meet needs, because needs are reflected in objectives—unless the philosophic generalizations and the objectives are translated into significant curricular experiences and activities.

Evaluation is presented as the fourth area in the development of an instructional program designed to meet pupils' needs. Actually, evaluation may not be limited to a particular phase of

feed, which he had computed from the cost of a one-hundred-pound sack. His records included the total cost of each feeding and the total cost of the project by weeks. Actually, he had applied many mathematical principles and processes in compiling his records.

When Mr. Horn came to Roy's house for a conference with Mr. Barnes, the teacher was amazed at the evidence of Roy's mastery of arithmetic. Finally, the teacher exclaimed, "Why, Roy has taught himself more of certain kinds of arithmetic than some of the other pupils know."

Here is a clear example of learning being more meaningful and purposive on the one hand and less on the other. The more the learner sees meaning and purpose in what he is learning, the greater is his chance of success. The converse is also true, the less meaningful and purposive the learning, the greater is the probability of failure. Such statements should not be interpreted to mean that there are two kinds of learning: meaningful and meaningless. What is meant is that some elements in the learning situation are more meaningful to the learner than others. Learning is not meaningful on one hand and meaningless on the other, because the very essence—the hard core—of learning is that it is the means through which the learner discovers meanings and clarifies and applies them. Learning becomes meaningful and purposive to the extent that the learner sees his problems as real and worthwhile. Meaning and purpose are basic to learning.¹

To declare that meaning and purpose are basic elements in the learning process is not to deny the need and value of hard work or to imply, for that matter, that "once-over-lightly" preparation is sufficient, desirable, or defensible. Too many teachers get pupils to work by increasing the pressure upon them, rather than by changing the method of approach. The usual approach to drill work in the school is a good example. Usually drill work is required of pupils who see no real reason for doing it, who feel no conscious need of it, and who are not far enough along to know what it is about, what is expected,

he formulates a sound educational point of view and implements it in terms of school experiences which are significant to pupils in light of purposes they understand, and which they propose or adopt as their own.

32. *The Purposes of Pupils and Teachers Influence Learning.*

Roy Barnes was having great difficulty in his eighth grade arithmetic. His teacher, Mr. Horn, told Mr. Barnes, Roy's father, that there was a bare possibility that Roy might receive a passing mark by stretching the probability curve and the teacher's conscience and charitable nature. "But," said Mr. Horn, "so far as Roy's getting any real grasp of the work is concerned, the only possible evaluation is failure. I'm greatly concerned because Roy's tests and records indicate that he can learn and is a bright enough boy." Mr. Barnes admitted that he too was concerned.

When Roy was confronted by his father he admitted his difficulty and summarized his problem by saying, "Well, Pop, it just seems that I can't keep my mind on the problems. Really, some of them don't make sense to me. The other day we had one like this: 'The size of the rectangular openings in a wire fence is $7\frac{3}{4}$ inches long by $4\frac{1}{16}$ inches wide. How much fence will be required to cover three sections if there are fifteen rectangles in each row of a section?' That seemed to me like a hard way to figure how much fence you need. Anyway, the problem didn't say whether the rectangles ran the long way or the short way along the rows. The kind of problems I like are the ones I figure out on my steer. You know, the one I'm going to enter in the cattle-raising contest at the county fair this summer."

Roy showed his father the records he had been carefully keeping on the cost of raising his steer. He had recorded the original cost of the calf, the number of pounds of each of the feeds at each feeding, and the cost per pound of each kind of

interpreted. From a child-centered frame of reference, the student of teaching is able to utilize the child's interests and needs as important factors in the efficiency of learning and in the child's own well-being.

Other conditions which make it difficult for pupils and teachers to relate their purposes are the demands of society upon the individual and the school. The school is a social institution created by society primarily for the purpose of its own self-perpetuation through the production of citizens capable of effectively participating in the accepted social procedures. Consequently, there are certain objectives in school and purposes in teaching which society expects to be achieved. These may be difficult for the child to recognize or to relate to his own interests and purposes. Moreover, they may be regarded by the teacher as so obviously necessary and desirable that he sees little need for or value in relating them to the pupil's purposes.

The importance of the social setting of learning and the need for the socialization of the individual have complicated the problem of clarifying teaching purposes and of relating them to pupil purposes. To overcome the difficulties involved, too many students of teaching have resorted to undesirable extrinsic devices for motivating boys and girls in school. Desire to make high grades, to please the teacher, to escape punishment, to do what associates are doing, or to win a reward are examples of the usual use of motivating devices. All of them are extrinsic in the sense that they are apart from the activity itself. Many of those named are natural and not harmful unless abused. Due to their extrinsic nature, however, a cessation of activity on the part of the learner usually results when the effect of the device is removed. Evidence of the fact is seen in the failure of many pupils to continue activities in later life which they have successfully experienced in school. While incentives may have occasional good results they are usually uneconomical and ordinarily ineffective. They are many times such a practical, obvious, and simple solution to the student teacher's problem

and why it is valuable. When it is properly approached and used, the drill is a powerful teaching-learning device because the pupils are aware that they lack a certain skill or efficiency which they wish to achieve, and thus they have a conscious desire and need for drill. The change of approach converts meaningless drudgery into stimulating effort, with a resultant increase in performance, because meaning is clarified and purpose achieved.

The student of teaching who recognizes that pupils have purposes for what they do has learned that school is a place in which boys and girls should be permitted to work for themselves. The classroom of such a teacher is not a place in which he starts and stops activity, with pupils waiting until they are told to do the next thing the teacher wants done. Rather, the work in the classroom becomes a challenge to the abilities and talents of pupils, with emphasis upon intrinsic satisfactions here and now, as well as promised fulfillment in the future. Permitting boys and girls to work for themselves instead of the teacher, and getting them to do it, is not an easy procedure, for it demands clarification and a relation of the purposes of pupils and teachers.

If the student of teaching accepts the tenets of Principles 30 and 31 of this chapter, then his purposes in teaching are directed toward the discovery and the meeting of pupils' needs. Many times the needs of a pupil are not recognized by him, or are not clearly seen as areas in which improvement and development are necessary or desirable. When the teacher faces such a problem, it becomes his purpose to help the pupil to recognize or clarify his situation. Many student teachers find such procedures difficult because they have interpreted children from the adult point of view. They have looked upon children as "whittled-down" adults or, in other words, have considered them to be like adults in every respect but size. Study and research have revealed that children differ qualitatively from adults, and it is from such a point of view that the needs, interests, and purposes of children must be

to say, if the analysis of the learning process presented in Principle 28 of this chapter is accepted, the teacher cannot learn for the pupil. The pupil has to learn for himself, and he does it through his own activity. Thus, the only thing that the teacher can do for the pupil is to direct and guide his activity in such a way that the desired learning takes place. The teacher guides and directs the pupil's activity primarily through the medium of a special environment designed to produce certain desired learnings. When the pupil interacts with the environment, his behavior is changed and conditioned in the desired way. The changes in behavior are the learnings which are wanted. The teacher becomes the key factor in the whole teaching-learning situation because he is the designer of the environment required to produce the desired results. Moreover, he directs the pupil's interaction with the environment—a process necessary to achieve the desired changes in behavior or learnings.

Is method, then, limited to the way a teacher asks questions or the procedure he uses in making assignments, introducing a new area of work, or supervising a co-curricular activity? The answer cannot be restricted to any single element named because method must be defined broadly if the recognized goals of a modern education program are to be realized. Actually, method includes the total social behavior of the teacher as it relates to the pupils, the staff, and the others with whom he works. This can be observed by noting that some teachers are more kind than others or more generous or honest. Some are more self-centered and selfish than those who have acquired the skills, attitudes, knowledges, and ideals necessary to get along well with others. Thus, a teacher's method is so much a part of him as an individual and includes such a substantial portion of his personality that separation of him from his method is a virtual impossibility.

Development in teaching depends upon many factors. The teacher brings to his job more than a few set procedures or "tricks of the trade"; he brings his whole self—his beliefs about such factors as the task he performs, the nature of the educative

of motivation that he sees little need to search further for more effective ways of stimulating his pupils to learn.

No classroom procedure or technique is defensible unless it gives due regard to the factors which make learning dynamic. Those teaching procedures which motivate pupils through the intrinsic value of their activities are the most powerful stimulants to learning. Intrinsic motivation means that the pupil sees inherent value in what he is doing. Its driving power is the desire for something which is felt by the learner. It exists only when the pupil sees the purpose of the activity, accepts it as a desirable goal, and adopts it as his own. The most powerful intrinsic motivation is that arising from the consciousness of a need. As has been said, the successful student teacher, the one who causes real effort and brings about true learning, motivates pupils through needs that they feel, or that the teacher reveals to them, and which they recognize and are willing to strive to satisfy.

The basis of all successful teaching lies in making learning meaningful and purposive. The basis of meaningful activity by the pupil is the recognition of value either in the present or in the foreseeable future. When pupils see value in what they are doing it results in mutual recognition of interests and effective relationship of purposes by both teacher and pupils.

33. *A Good Program of Student Teaching Recognizes No Single Best Method of Teaching.*

What is method? What does the teacher do when he teaches? If there are acceptable methods of teaching, how does the teacher select the one he uses? Is method related to the teacher's personality? And so the questions pour from the students of teaching, each query becoming the stimulus for another question.

Probably, a good way to begin to answer questions about method is to analyze some of the basic elements of teaching. In the first place, teaching is not learning *for* the pupil. That is

34. *Effective Teaching Provides for Differences among Pupils.*

The American public school must of necessity develop its program in terms of a cosmopolitan school population. Such an adjustment is necessary because, in theory at least, the school is committed to serving all pupils of school age who present themselves for admission. The admission of the children of all the people has brought into the school a population that is widely diversified in many ways. While most pupils of the same age group have some needs in common, the school population taken as a whole exhibits wide differences in cultural background, socioeconomic status, ability, and interest. What is more, individual pupils are likely to differ from each other in almost any trait they possess.

Why are school programs organized in different ways? Why is the daily classroom work organized in one particular way within a school or within some grades of a school and differently in others? Why are the same activities organized and conducted as part of the regular classroom program in one school and as co-curricular offerings in another? Why are work-experience programs provided by some schools? The answers to the questions lead to the conclusion that different kinds of efforts are being made to provide for the needs of the cosmopolitan population of the schools. The efforts are aimed at adjusting the school program to the needs of each pupil and to provide work of such a nature as to meet effectively his educational needs both common and individual. The aim is to develop an adequate program in each phase of modern education and to organize the work of the phases into an acceptable total educational program.

An educational program designed for the masses may overlook the individual pupil because such factors as concern for the welfare of groups can easily receive primary consideration in program development. In the face of mass education and group instruction, sight of the individual pupil should not be lost

process, and the role of the school. The beliefs, understandings, and attitudes of the teacher are the basic elements in his behavior, activity, or performance and hence in his method. Teachers differ in their ideas, attitudes, and beliefs and, because they are not alike in these ways, their methods of teaching are different. For example, it is a fallacy to assume that because a method works well for the supervising teacher, it must be used by the student and that he will be equally successful with its use. That which is good methodology for one teacher is not necessarily successful for another.

Experienced engineers know that there are many good ways of designing machines—there is no single best method. Similarly, in education, a variety of good teaching methods are being successfully used. There is little doubt that each of the methods has made a worthy contribution to the learning of boys and girls. In the hands of a skilled teacher, many of the methods have value but there is little reason to believe that the teacher should limit his teaching to only one method. Account must be taken of the fact that each teacher and each teaching-learning situation is different from every other, and that what produces results for one teacher, in his particular situation and with his individual personality, may not succeed for another. Compared to engineering, education poses far more elusive problems that oftentimes contain a great number of intangible factors. For this reason, it is more likely that there will be several acceptable ways of handling a teaching-learning situation instead of only one way. From a number of acceptable methods the student teacher must be assisted and encouraged to develop his own composite method, appropriate to his philosophy and personality. In such a process, the supervising teacher does not furnish a detailed plan for the student and chart his every move, but rather guides him in developing his own method.

ment of the ability to solve problems gives the pupil a means of meeting actual situations both here and now and in the future. Furthermore, it is declared that the ability to analyze new situations and to meet them intelligently is the best preparation for a happy and successful life.

Problems exist in almost numberless situations in every area of the curriculum. They may be created by the pupils, offered by the teacher, derived from daily experience, suggested in textbooks and other teaching materials, recommended by parents, or found in the community and the world. It is impossible, of course, for the school to attempt to teach pupils how to attack every kind of problem they may later encounter. Probably, the chief goal is to help pupils learn how to solve problems and through such means to develop their ability to gather facts, analyze data through critical thinking, and make decisions on the basis of available evidence. The relationship of problem-solving and reflective thinking lies in teaching the child how to think and in assuming that he will be able to apply the techniques to the multiplicity of problem situations existent in his experience.

All problems are not solved by systematic methods. Some are solved by merely applying generalizations which are already known. Others are attacked and solved by trial and error. There is, however, a generally recognized procedure for a scientific attack upon problems. It was set forth by John Dewey and is widely accepted. Dewey's technique is essentially the analysis of a complete act of thought and consists of five rather distinct steps: *

i. *A felt difficulty.*

The individual is first aware of a perplexity or problem.

ii. *Its location and definition.*

The exact character or nature of the difficulty must be known before a plausible solution can be suggested.

* Dewey, John, *How We Think*, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1910, pp. 72-78.

for he is the basic learning unit. The school, therefore, cannot afford to attempt to mold pupils to a uniform standard or pattern; to do so would be to ignore the differences which exist among pupils here and now and those which will characterize them in the future.

There are almost as many ways of approaching a task of learning as there are pupils and teachers. For example, the approach may be made through an analysis of daily experiences, which aids in the solution of real-life problems; through the study of challenging problems on the level of the pupils' comprehension and which are designed to stimulate further activity; or through the application of a principle, which affords the teacher a means of introducing the pupils to the principle. In like manner, the planning, the procedures, the activities of the teacher and pupils, the processes of evaluation, and, in short, all that constitutes the method employed by the student teacher will vary as he understands the relationship of the particular group of pupils to the specific learning task to be accomplished. This is true because, whatever the method employed, it becomes the means of achieving the goals to be reached by the learners. Because it is a process of realizing the value sought, method itself grows out of the anticipated objectives toward which the teaching is directed.

It seems important, then, that the student teacher become familiar with the fundamentals of various types of basic teaching methods in order that he may make the appropriate application to a particular situation and that he may provide adequately for the varying needs of the pupils. The following brief descriptions of several selected basic methods are intended to summarize the essential fundamental principles of each of the techniques presented.

The first method to be discussed is the problem-solving method because it is widely utilized and successfully applied by many teachers in different types of teaching-learning situations. The exponents of the problem-solving method argue that since real life consists of a succession of problems, the develop-

that they may use the procedure in solving the problems which they face in their daily lives.

Probably one of the most common applications of the problem procedure in actual work with boys and girls is the project method, which insists that the pupil choose and plan his own project. Historically, the project method was associated with the physical construction of the elementary school classroom and with the teaching of manual arts, agriculture, and vocational subjects in the secondary school. In early practice the project included a practical problem planned and carried to completion by the pupil. At its inception the most obvious features of the project involved a problem which was concrete in nature, which entailed the use of physical materials, and which took place in a natural environment. A project now implies a completed material object which when consummated presents a physical unity. Thus, a project is interpreted to include an assemblage of materials coupled with a physical presentation.

Kilpatrick has identified the project with "whole-hearted, purposeful activity." This designation by Kilpatrick, however, is open to question on the grounds that no one method of teaching should or could have a monopoly upon wholehearted, purposeful activity because such a condition should pervade every teaching-learning situation. Bossing defines the project more in terms of its original conception when he says: "The project is a significant, practical unit of activity of a problematic nature, planned and carried to completion by the student in a natural manner and involving the use of physical materials to complete the unit of experience."¹⁰

Desirable characteristic features of the project method include assumption by the pupil of the responsibility for his own learning, selection and planning of the project by the pupil, identification of the pupil with the task instead of the imposition of responsibility by an adult, and placement of emphasis

¹⁰ Bossing, Nelson L., *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942, p. 574.

iii. *Suggestion of possible solution.*

An hypothesis or guessed solution is proposed in the light of what is known about the problem. Frequently more than one plausible solution will be recognized.

iv. *Development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion.*

Through reflection the consequences of a proposed solution are developed.

v. *Further observation and experiment leading to its acceptance or rejection.*

If the suggested solution can be verified, it is accepted. If not, some modification of it, or some new proposal must be tested.

In applying the suggested problem-solving procedure in actual work with boys and girls, the student teacher must be able to organize and direct school experiences which promote reflective thinking. The procedures for attacking problems are almost as multiple and varied as the sources of the problems themselves. The approach may be made through some form of group activity, through the teacher leading the initial thinking on a problem, or through the medium of a project which represents still another method of attack. Whatever the procedure, the steps suggested by Dewey will serve as a helpful guide to the student teacher and pupils as they select and define a problem for study, search for data and collect it in a systematic fashion, use ideas and experiences related to the problem, formulate tentative solutions, try out the proposed solutions, suspend judgment, weigh and decide, draw conclusions on the basis of the evidence collected, and, finally, apply the newly learned principle to an immediate problematical situation.

Perhaps the best approach to the problem-solving method is made when the principal experiences in a teaching-learning situation are organized into and around the consideration and solution of problems. The value of the method lies in creating the awareness of the pupils to the technique, and in developing insofar as possible the ability and attitude of boys and girls so

into grades and groups for purposes of instruction has led to the use of "group methods," instead of the rather highly individualized program employed in the ungraded schools of the colonial and early national period. It is recognized, of course, that there is need to attend to pupils individually because of the differences in their traits and talents and also because of the diversity of their achievement. To help to meet the challenge of individual differences several approaches have been made in addition to the differentiation of teaching methods which has already been described. The more important of the other approaches to the solution of some of the problems of providing for the individual needs of boys and girls will be briefly discussed.

Variations in promotional policies and procedures, including semiannual, special, double, and trial promotions, have been introduced through the years. In applying any of the promotional schemes it is necessary to take into account the effect upon the physical, mental, emotional, and social growth and development of the child. The superior child who may need to be advanced faster than his normal progress would permit may, if crowded, become socially or psychologically maladjusted. Similarly, the average or inferior pupil who may need to be accelerated because of age and maturity may experience difficulty and psychological disturbance because of inability to achieve at the level of the advanced group. The success of any plan of promotion depends upon the common sense, attitude, and professional skill of the teachers who use it.

Ability grouping or homogeneous grouping as it is sometimes called is another effort to provide for the varying needs of boys and girls. Usually, intelligence or achievement is the basis of the division of the group into different sections of ability. Actually, of course, a group formed on the basis of one trait is not homogeneous in any other respect if, in fact, it is similar in terms of the one ability used for purposes of grouping. Research has repeatedly revealed wide ranges in achievement among so-called homogeneous groups of pupils. Studies

upon practical experience through relation of the pupil to real-life situations.

Observable in recent efforts to improve teaching has been a trend to shift the emphasis away from the teacher and toward the pupil as the center of instructional activity and interest. The trend has been characterized by evolutionary progress from the teacher-dominated "lesson-hearing" recitation or lecture to the pupil-centered situation. The commensurate aspects of classroom procedure have shifted from the more or less traditional teacher-centered approach with its questionable motivation of learning and its lack of encouragement in the practice of social co-operation to the pupil-centered procedure. In the latter approach emphasis is placed upon socializing the individual and providing opportunity to learn and develop social ideals, attitudes, and values through participation in group activities. The effort to socialize the classroom situation is stimulated by the need to produce citizens who function in a social order based upon co-operation and recognition of common needs and interests. It is believed that the best way to prepare boys and girls to live effectively in such a society is to let them function here and now in the school in the same way that they will be called upon to live when they become adult citizens of the community.

The pupil-centered approach is characterized by much activity in which undertakings are planned, initiated, carried out, and evaluated by the entire class, or sections of it. The teacher serves as director, guide, and resource-person as he promotes pupil-activated growth by capitalizing upon pupil initiative and leadership. Pupils develop individually through assuming responsibility for the success of the group activity and by acquiring the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and habits which will enable them to contribute effectively to group effort.

A study of individual differences has revealed the need for improving the system of mass instruction which the schools have been forced to adopt because of the pressure of large numbers of pupils to be educated. The classification of pupils

the pupils' achievement enough to warrant promotion to a faster learning group.

No doubt some type of grouping for instruction is necessary, and no matter what scheme of classification is employed on a school-wide basis, there will probably be need for grouping within classes to meet the needs of individual pupils. For example, while some of the pupils are working on a selected activity under the direct guidance of the teacher, the remainder of the class may be busily engaged in other activities such as reading, painting, or drawing. These latter activities may be in progress within the room or even in other parts of the building.

It seems certain, however, that there is a trend away from ability grouping, especially in the elementary school. The criterion of grouping becoming more and more popular is the effect of the particular arrangement upon the welfare of the whole child, rather than the prospect of producing only scholastic improvement. The school, however, has a responsibility to the majority of the pupils and any plan of grouping must contribute to the fulfillment of the duty. It becomes necessary, then, to consider the welfare of the group as well as the benefit of the individual. Thus, flexibility becomes a fundamental characteristic of any sound plan of grouping. Probably, one of the soundest means of grouping pupils for purposes of instruction is first to secure pertinent information about the children from cumulative records, teachers, and parents. Then to form groups in terms of the best analysis of the data which appears to locate the child in a group and with a teacher so that he will have the greatest chance of success in light of his maximum potentialities.

The individualization of instruction is the goal which the student of teaching exerts his efforts to reach. It means the adaptation of teaching to the varying abilities of pupils and may be accomplished in degree without necessarily changing grade organization, classification procedure, or promotional policy. The principal variables are the amount and quality of

show that achievement ranges are wide under all grouping schemes. In fact, it is known that the variability in achievement in ability groups having three sections or levels is about eighty-three per cent as great as in unselected groups.¹¹

The superiority of homogeneous grouping has not been proved conclusively. There is little evidence to support the claim that ability grouping deals more successfully with the problem of individual differences than does heterogeneous grouping. Especially is the statement applicable to schools having a modern program of education. Certainly, ability grouping is more nearly related to subject-centered curricula than to the modern programs aimed at the all-around development of the individual child. Many educators do not favor ability grouping because they feel that it is undemocratic. They contend that the destiny of pupils tends to be determined by assigning them to groups on the basis of criteria whose validity is open to question. Moreover, it is contended that the grouping of pupils on the basis of ability tends to create intellectual snobbery and an attitude of superiority on the part of the bright pupils, and a feeling of inferiority among the slow group. It is felt that an aristocracy of brains would be as objectionable as one of wealth, for example, in its effect upon personality development here and now and upon the sympathies and understandings of people in later life. Other educators point out that home-school relationships are more likely to be poor under a plan of ability grouping. The contention is that while the parents of the bright pupils may be satisfied to have their children in the "fast" group, it is not common to find a parent who wants his child to be classified as a slow learner. In addition, it is pointed out that children in the "slow" group have more opportunity to become maladjusted because of the pressure applied by parents to increase

¹¹ Otto, Henry J., "Organization and Administration of Elementary Education," in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Walter S. Monroe, editor, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950, pp 377-378

upon the psychological nature of the learner. The normally integrated nature of the pupil justifies effort in providing unified experiences from one activity, subject, or area of work to another.

The thesis that learning is a process of changing behavior through experience implies that the more varied the experiences of the learners the more they are likely to learn and the more easily they will learn. The bases of learning for boys and girls are found in their *living* because learning begins where pupils are and progresses in relation to meaning and purpose.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Think of learning as a change in the behavior of a person which is produced through his own activity.
2. Remember that each individual must learn for himself—no other person can learn for him.
3. Begin with the learner where he is in terms of his needs, problems, and abilities.
4. Recognize that no two individuals have the same perceptions of similar situations and hence no two pupils in a group will learn the same things in the same way from the same situation.
5. Include pupils in the processes of determining needs and planning ways of meeting them.
6. Give pupils opportunities to learn functionally the fundamental skills, to live democratically, and to become self-directive here and now.
7. Apply research findings in learning to understand the needs of boys and girls.
8. Make use of every available legitimate source and means of securing information about boys and girls as individuals.
9. Utilize studies of needs as a basis for building a functional program to meet them.
10. Understand your educational point of view so clearly that you can put it into effect in your work with boys and girls.

the work done although some teachers vary the period of time allotted for the completion of tasks. There is no formal grouping of pupils into slow, average, or fast groups. Adjustments may be made in terms of specific situations, of individual differences in needs, interests, and abilities, of minimum levels of achievement, of the instructional materials and activities employed, and of the quality of work done. Each pupil is considered on the basis of his ability and interest in a particular area or part of the work. For example, in reading, the brighter pupils are encouraged to read the most challenging books, while the children with reading problems are encouraged to read the easier materials and those designed to improve their reading skills.

Such procedures when expertly employed appear to represent a satisfactory solution to many problems of meeting the varying needs of individual pupils. Many educators are coming to believe that such methods may represent even a better solution to the problems of providing for individual differences than does the formal grouping of pupils.

Some schools attempt to solve the problem of meeting individual needs through reorganization and enrichment of the curriculum. The schools would appear to be pursuing proper procedure to the extent that they recognize that many problems of pupil progress no doubt stem from a lack of adjustment between the child and the curriculum. On the other hand, it may be argued that the welfare of the pupil is best promoted when the program of the school is varied, organized, and enriched in such a way that it is constantly adapted to the needs, interests, and abilities of pupils. It must be remembered that the complete individual is the learning unit and that the integrated nature of the child makes possible the acquisition of various experiences simultaneously. All the activities provided and directed by the school should contribute to an integrated learning experience. The educational experiences of boys and girls must be harmonized and articulated with life outside the school if learning experiences are to be based

to gather facts, analyze data through critical thinking, and make decisions on the basis of available evidence.

29. Be able to organize and direct school experiences which promote critical thinking.
30. Help pupils to use the problem-solving method in solving the problems which they face in their daily lives.
31. Differentiate method in order to help provide for individual differences among pupils.
32. Consider the welfare of the whole child as a desirable criterion for grouping pupils for instruction.
33. Strive to reach the goal of individualized instruction.

PROBLEMS

1. Describe the nature of the learning process.
2. List the implications of the nature of learning for the teacher in his work with children.
3. Outline the role of the teacher.
4. Define "pupil needs" and list the basic common needs which have been determined.
5. Outline briefly three different studies aimed at discovering pupils' needs.
6. List the means you may employ to determine the individual needs of a pupil.
7. List ways in which pupils may be included in the processes of determining their needs and of planning to meet them.
8. Select a pupil from your group and make a special study of his individual needs.
9. Outline the areas necessary to the development of a functional instructional program.
10. Determine the proper implications of the needs theory for the particular level at which you are working.
11. Outline the major objectives of your instructional program and list the primary purposes toward which you intend to direct your work. On your level of work, indicate the kinds of experiences and activities to be provided in order to achieve the stated objectives and purposes.

11. Interpret and apply the implications of basic common needs at the particular level on which you are working.
12. Understand clearly the primary purposes toward which you are working.
13. Define your objectives in terms of the changes you desire to make in the behavior of pupils.
14. Develop functional guides to teaching that will indicate the kinds of experiences which boys and girls should have.
15. Translate the generalizations of your philosophy and objectives into significant curricular experiences and activities for the boys and girls with whom you work.
16. Provide activities and experiences which are designed to achieve your stated objectives.
17. State objectives for each phase of a learning experience.
18. Evaluate carefully to determine how well objectives have been realized and needs met.
19. Utilize the results of evaluation in redeveloping the instructional program.
20. Recognize that differences may exist between your purposes and those of pupils.
21. Permit boys and girls to work for themselves.
22. View pupils' purposes from a child-centered frame of reference.
23. Relate your purposes to those society expects the school to achieve. Help pupils to draw similar relationships in terms of their purposes as well as yours.
24. Clarify and relate your purposes and those of the pupils by developing mutual recognition of interests and effective relationships.
25. Make learning meaningful and purposeful to boys and girls by helping them to see value in it.
26. Recognize that there is no single best method of teaching.
27. Look upon method as including your total social behavior as it relates to the pupils, the staff, and the others with whom you work.
28. Apply the problem-solving method to helping pupils learn

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12. Outline the purposes you hope to achieve through a learning experience you are directing or will direct. Discover the purposes of the pupils and determine whether or not their goals are the same as yours. Plan how to assist pupils to relate the two groups of objectives if they are different.
13. Outline the main elements of the teaching methods presented in the chapter.
14. Outline Dewey's technique for a scientific attack upon problems.
15. In broad outline indicate how you would evaluate your instructional program and utilize the results to redevelop it.

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detailed plans. In like manner, engineers must make complete plans for their projects. Teaching is certainly no less an intricate process than building or engineering, and planning here is just as necessary. Just as with architectural blueprints there is a need for various types of plans, so in educational planning several kinds of plans are necessary. Within this chapter principles will be developed to illustrate the various phases and types of plans. Whatever the type of planning, however, attention should be focused constantly on the importance of the individual pupil in the teaching-learning process.

Efficient and wise planning is the basis of successful teaching. Planning begins with the goals of the teaching-learning situation for the time-block under consideration, moves through creatively conceived means of achieving those goals, and ends with valid plans for evaluating the efforts of all persons involved. Educational planning, however, is different from certain aspects of architectural or engineering planning in that planning in teaching is a continuous process and certain variations may be made even while the project is under way. It becomes apparent, therefore, that the teacher may continue to change plans during the actual teaching process; however, pre-planning is essential to good teaching.

It is generally recognized that pupils should have an important share in planning. This does not mean that the student teacher does less planning. It means, in fact, that he must do more careful and thoughtful planning. Pupil growth is dependent upon careful selection and arrangement of purposeful activities which are based on children's abilities, interests, and needs. Planning is based on knowing where each pupil is, for growth begins where the individual learner is now. Different areas of study and different kinds of learning experiences of course require different types of plans.

There are three major types of plans: plans for the whole semester or year, plans for each major block or unit which relate it to the semester's work, and plans for each day's work to see that it contributes to the accomplishment of the whole.

ACTION APPROACH

1. *What are the different types of planning for teaching with which every teacher should be concerned?*
2. *How does the teacher contribute to planning without violating the principles of democratic planning?*
3. *What must be known about the pupils before effective planning can be done?*
4. *How does long-range planning differ from the planning which must be done for daily work?*
5. *Why are objectives for teaching necessary?*
6. *How does the teacher provide for genuine motivation?*
7. *What are the important activities which should be included in every effective plan for teaching?*
8. *What are the specific items which should receive consideration in making assignments?*
9. *How can the daily lesson plan be related to the plans for a longer period of time?*
10. *What is the place of the pupil in the planning process?*

VI.

PLANNING

FOR

TEACHING

IF PROPERLY conceived, planning for teaching can be one of the most fascinating as well as one of the most fruitful aspects of the entire educational process. Here, in the planning stages, the creative and imaginative teacher has the opportunity to make the most of his talents of originality. However, regardless of the amount of experience, ingenuity, and inventiveness possessed by the teacher, everyone must do some planning for teaching. Somehow, it is easier to see the need for planning when one deals with tangible materials. For example, it is difficult to imagine a builder, irrespective of his experience and ability, starting any construction work without some rather

detailed plans. In like manner, engineers must make complete plans for their projects. Teaching is certainly no less an intricate process than building or engineering, and planning here is just as necessary. Just as with architectural blueprints there is a need for various types of plans, so in educational planning several kinds of plans are necessary. Within this chapter principles will be developed to illustrate the various phases and types of plans. Whatever the type of planning, however, attention should be focused constantly on the importance of the individual pupil in the teaching-learning process.

Efficient and wise planning is the basis of successful teaching. Planning begins with the goals of the teaching-learning situation for the time-block under consideration, moves through creatively conceived means of achieving those goals, and ends with valid plans for evaluating the efforts of all persons involved. Educational planning, however, is different from certain aspects of architectural or engineering planning in that planning in teaching is a continuous process and certain variations may be made even while the project is under way. It becomes apparent, therefore, that the teacher may continue to change plans during the actual teaching process; however, pre-planning is essential to good teaching.

It is generally recognized that pupils should have an important share in planning. This does not mean that the student teacher does less planning. It means, in fact, that he must do more careful and thoughtful planning. Pupil growth is dependent upon careful selection and arrangement of purposeful activities which are based on children's abilities, interests, and needs. Planning is based on knowing where each pupil is, for growth begins where the individual learner is now. Different areas of study and different kinds of learning experiences of course require different types of plans.

There are three major types of plans: plans for the whole semester or year, plans for each major block or unit which relate it to the semester's work, and plans for each day's work to see that it contributes to the accomplishment of the whole.

ACTION APPROACH

1. *What are the different types of planning for teaching with which every teacher should be concerned?*
2. *How does the teacher contribute to planning without violating the principles of democratic planning?*
3. *What must be known about the pupils before effective planning can be done?*
4. *How does long-range planning differ from the planning which must be done for daily work?*
5. *Why are objectives for teaching necessary?*
6. *How does the teacher provide for genuine motivation?*
7. *What are the important activities which should be included in every effective plan for teaching?*
8. *What are the specific items which should receive consideration in making assignments?*
9. *How can the daily lesson plan be related to the plans for a longer period of time?*
10. *What is the place of the pupil in the planning process?*

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Plans should be made in terms of the goals to be achieved. Although each teacher will establish his own goals, it is important to consider the goals which are generally recognized as significant. The four major goals of education as stated by the Educational Policies Commission are rather widely accepted. They are:

1. Objectives of self-realization—the educated person.
2. Objectives of human relations—the educated member of family and community.
3. Objectives of economic security—the educated producer and consumer.
4. Objectives of civic responsibility—the educated citizen.¹

In planning the year's, the semester's, or the day's work, the teacher should make sure that it contributes to one or more of these basic goals, and that it contributes specifically to the content, skills, and habits peculiar to that area of study. The real job is to plan the work so that the broad general purposes of education function in the actual teaching-learning situation. Since the large goals are general, the teacher must list specific skills, habits, and attitudes which in combination contribute to the major goal and then see that pupils have opportunities to practice these skills, habits, and attitudes.

As stated, the plan should be a flexible guide which allows for modifications as the work progresses. These are some of the characteristics of effective plans:

1. They are made by those who are to use them.
2. They are thorough, flexible, and usable.
3. They provide for the point or level from which the teaching is to start and provide effective direction.
4. They contain: statements of goals, procedures, and content skills to be developed; wide variety of materials, wide range of pupil activities; and methods of evaluation to be used.

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, 1938, Washington, D.C., pp. 50, 72, 90, 105.

5. They provide for group and individual interests, abilities, and needs.

Each plan is tied to what has gone before and paves the way for future action. The relatedness of one part to another must be so real that a sequential development is assured.

35. Teaching Plans Are Made for the Pupils Who Are to Be Taught.

As mentioned before, one of the basic principles of modern education is that learning will be of value only insofar as the learner is able to see that the learning activities are related to goals which he understands and accepts as his own. And in the development of a plan for a teaching-learning experience, the objectives or the reasons for the study should be developed in terms of the pupils' needs. Perhaps the best means of doing this is to develop the plans in class with the teacher and the pupils working co-operatively. The pupils then identify themselves with the plan because they have discussed it and have furnished suggestions for it. It has been "their plan," not just "the teacher's plan." If the boys and girls do not have any responsibility for the making of the plan, it is like the old-fashioned assignment from the textbook, exemplified by the teacher's remark, "You don't need to be told what's in the assignment! Just read pages 174 through 192 as I've told you to do!" Plans without pupil participation become something more or less distasteful, required to be carried out, but not interesting and meaningful enough to be remembered or used in the future.

In order to develop competency in democratic planning, the pupil should encounter democracy as a part of his school experience. The boy or girl must assume some measure of responsibility for that plan which he is to carry out as a part of a group or as an individual. It should be pointed out, however, that the successful teacher does not relinquish his role as the guiding influence in the development of plans. The teacher

has a tremendous responsibility and must always exercise his leadership for the good of the group.

The teacher's responsibility in planning is one which requires a close look at the composition of the class and a real understanding of individual and group problems. The extent to which teacher-pupil planning can be used is largely dependent upon the maturity of the members of the group and the extent to which the processes of democratic group thinking have been learned. However, it should not be assumed that the immaturity of a group or its lack of experience in group planning should serve as an adequate excuse for not using democratic procedures. Such immaturity merely indicates that the teacher should start where the students are and work with them to develop their understandings and abilities. This matter in itself illustrates the necessity for the teacher to study the group carefully prior to developing any far-reaching plans. Teacher-pupil planning begins in the kindergarten and continues through the twelfth grade.

A faculty committee of the Glencoe, Illinois, schools spent a considerable period of time studying the factors which seem to be most important in classroom control. After full consideration it was decided that pupil-teacher planning is the most crucial factor in control or the lack of it. Teachers who planned with pupils were more successful in establishing and maintaining high morale and significant purpose among the group. As a result these teachers were able to attend to differences among pupils which were creating difficulties in situations in which teacher-pupil planning was not involved.

36. *Teaching Plans Formulated in an Atmosphere of Freedom Provide Richer and Broader Learning Experiences for Pupils.*

In earlier times the teacher followed a definite pattern of assignment one day and questioning the next day—a formal type of teaching that had very little if any connection with

pupil experiences. The questions were the teacher's way of determining whether or not the pupil had prepared his assignment and the material usually covered a certain number of pages in a textbook. Later the teacher would have a written test to verify the extent of the retention of the assimilated information. Education was the accumulation of information, useful or otherwise.

Today's educational program is widely different. It seeks to provide an educative environment for the optimal development of all educable levels of American youth regardless of social or economic status. The teacher seeks to provide for each pupil the fullest possible experience in democratic living within the school. This requires active participation in group living and practice in the creation of values. The teacher must have a personal knowledge of each pupil and his needs and must be able to plan so that each child may discover and extend his interests and abilities to meet these needs. As noted, learning takes place when there is a reconstruction of experience to produce a change of behavior.

The teacher, in order to have an attitude of freedom in planning, must thoroughly understand the basic concepts and principles of our democratic faith and must feel the responsibility of providing the young with experiences that will contribute maximally to the production of desirable changes in their personalities.

This principle should be interpreted in such a way that it becomes quite clear that no one instructional procedure is in and of itself the solution to the problem of adapting instruction to individual differences. Freedom, in this instance, means that no procedure or idea becomes a fetish. As a corollary to the statement that there is no one solution to the problem of planning and presenting certain materials, the teacher should realize the obligation to make use of every device or technique which is valuable. The successful teacher is one who can deviate from the plans which have been formulated if it appears that

by so doing the teaching-learning experience is made more effective.

37. *Long-Range Plans Are Necessary for Effective Teaching.*

Most student teachers are eager to begin their teaching activities. It is true that some may feel a bit apprehensive about the first day's work, but generally the urge is so great to get the teaching underway that many times the student teacher fails to look very far into the future in developing plans. One young woman who was guiding pupils in a study of the "Colonization of America" recently remarked that she was going to run short of materials for teaching that important period of history. She felt, therefore, that she would do a much poorer job in her teaching because she had not looked far enough ahead in her planning to anticipate certain areas of interest and problems and needs involved.

If a teacher is to do effective work, he must plan far ahead in order to include most meaningfully the material which will be best suited to that which he is striving to teach. By such long-range planning he will be able to collect more effective material for the pupils' use in class. He will be able to revise his plans to fit the class needs and be in a better position to meet the individual needs. The plan becomes a base from which the teacher works in guiding the class in the most desirable activities.

Through long-range planning, the teacher will be able to carry out in sequence those objectives which have been developed for and by the particular class. In the planning for work in advance, the teacher and pupils plan the *who*, the *where*, the *what*, the *when*, and the *how*. Part of the plans emanate from the teacher; some, in a truly democratic situation, stem from the pupils; and final decisions are reached co-operatively. The teacher's preplanning becomes the foundation for the pupils' enrichment. Through long-range planning, the teacher

gains a feeling of security and adequacy that will enable him to guide the class more effectively. He becomes conscious of the need for the allotment of time so that too much time is not used for unimportant details and the necessary amount is allowed for the important things. In addition, the teacher is better able to plan for individual differences by having formed some attitude toward the class participation.

Certain fundamental questions, which center about *who, what, when, where, and how*, must be considered if the 'long-range planning is to be most effective. As has already been stressed in preceding chapters, it is of vital importance that the teacher understand the group for whom the work is being planned. Such understandings concern the strengths and weaknesses of the various individuals and the growth potentialities which each boy or girl possesses.

Any work which is planned should be designed in such a manner that increased knowledge, skills, insights, and understandings will result and can be seen in changed behavior. Therefore, it is extremely important that the teacher consider *what* is to be taught, so that the activities will result in desirable learnings. *Where, when, and how* are also of great significance, and the final outcomes in teaching depend to a great degree upon the completeness and effectiveness with which these factors figure in the planning.

Certain general objectives will obviously run as strong currents through practically all long-range planning. For example, every good teacher strives to assist boys and girls in learning to work together effectively. Schools should help persons to grow in social understanding and sensitivity. All planning should emphasize accuracy, quality, and completeness. In practically all individual or group work, teachers will stress the importance of seeking, finding, weighing, and utilizing pertinent information. The communication of ideas in the most effective manner, whether written or oral, will become a prime objective. From these ideas it becomes possible for one to understand what is

meant by "general objectives" that run through all long-range planning.

Each pupil and teacher who may be planning for the future must also attempt to discover and to formulate specific objectives to be achieved in the work being planned. The principal question to be answered is: what specific ideas or concepts should be gained by the boys and girls from the areas or problems to be studied? It is usually desirable to list all of the specific objectives which seem essential or pertinent; however, it is necessary to point out that the teacher cannot always list all of these objectives at one time for any period of study. It must be remembered that the building of concepts is a slow process and takes place over a long period of time. Many experiences are involved in such a process; therefore, many different ideas will be considered in the *how*, *when*, and *where* of the teaching, and new objectives may be added as the work progresses.

After the general and specific objectives have been stated, the teacher and pupils should formulate a tentative plan of activities and experiences. One of the great values of long-range planning is that it makes it possible to include a wide variety of worthwhile activities which can be woven together into a broad and colorful fabric of experience.

The teacher will need to read widely on the subject or subjects under study. Curriculum guides and other professional materials can help tremendously; however, these should serve only as guides, rather than as substitutes for the teacher's initiative or creativity in planning. The student of teaching will need to explore, review, and study a wide variety of materials and resources relating to the area of study. Teacher-resource books, pupil textbooks, library books, and other materials should be collected and used. Flat pictures, charts, films, slides, radio programs, television presentations, and other media should be considered in developing the plans for teaching well in advance of the time for use, so that the teacher will know just when, where, and how they can best be utilized.

In summary, it may be said that the long-range plan encompasses the work for a specific period, usually a semester, sometimes for a whole year. It is composed of a group of integrally related "accomplishable parts," units, blocks of work, problems, or centers of interest. It contains a statement of the objectives or aims as related to the major goals of education and of the special contributions peculiar to the area of study. The teacher may often wish to shift the emphasis as needs develop and as periodic appraisals indicate the desirability of change in plans; however, long-range planning can set the tone for the work of the year.

In helping the student teacher formulate the long-range plan, supervising teachers frequently perform the following activities:

1. Familiarize the student teacher with what has gone before.
2. Help him see its relation to the major goals.
3. Insist that he master the content, ideas, and skills involved. This should be a period of highly motivated and intensive study for the student teacher, for he cannot afford to be hampered by lack of knowledge when he assumes the role of teacher.
4. Lead the student teacher to acquaint himself with teaching materials and resources.
5. Help him see that proper motivation is essential to effective teaching. Plan definite ways by which motivation is to be assured.
6. Encourage him to discover the readability of suggested materials he plans to use—providing as wide a range of readability as is needed by the pupils.
7. Suggest that the student teacher make a bibliography of suggested readings for himself and for the children. He should know what these materials contain so that his recommendations earn respect through their validity and usefulness.
8. List various methods and procedures to be used. Help the student teacher understand that different jobs re-

quire varying means—that one child is challenged by one process and another is completely untouched by it.

The long-range plan is prepared and weighed in the light of principles which govern effective planning and sound learning. The supervising teacher and student teacher involved in the plan should have a complete copy of it. It is the design and the foundation which supports all the superstructure erected during the period of teaching. It constitutes a guarantee that the parts fit together in a meaningful unit or whole.

Effective long-range planning includes suitable techniques for evaluating the work. The plans should be carefully considered, and the procedures should be made compatible with the teaching techniques and the desired learning. More specific details relative to appraising progress and evaluating results will be presented in Chapter X.

38. *Short-Period or Block Planning Goes beyond Subject-Matter Organization.*

After the student teacher has visualized the direction the work is to take and what it is to include, the next step is the determination of the activities and experiences for which he is to be directly responsible. Then comes a period of even more intensive study and preparation, for this is *his* job. Of course, the supervising teacher will help and advise him in the making of his teaching plans, trying through conferences and at other times to guarantee for him and the children for whom he is responsible a successful experience.

For many years the term "unit plan for teaching" has been used in educational circles. When this plan was first developed, it was based upon sound principles emphasizing the importance of the individual characteristics of the learners and the significance of building the activities of teaching about some central, unifying theme or problem. The "unit" method, however, has come into disrepute in some areas because of the

abusive manner in which it has been used by some teachers and systems. Once a unit was developed it was passed on from teacher to teacher and used in all types of situations without any real regard for the learner or his needs. Therefore, when consideration is given to the development of short-term teaching plans, the same basic ideas involved in the original "unit" method approach can be included; however, the term "unit" should not be interpreted in such a way that would indicate a "canned" set of lessons or a body of knowledge or activities that could be handed down from one teacher to another or from one group of pupils to another.

The short-period teaching plan, or the plan which some persons might designate as the "unit" approach, is characterized by many of the same elements which might be used to describe the long-range plan. This shorter experience in learning is closely related to the larger area of study and together they should form a unified experience for the learner. The short-period teaching plan is organized around some central theme, problem, or problems. The specific objectives to be realized during the work must contribute to the realization of the objectives of the over-all, long-range plan.

Some suggestions for the development of the short-term or unit teaching plans are:

1. Determine the pupil interests, needs, and experiences at this particular point and provide for them through the scope of the content, activities, and types of assignments.
2. Identify and select areas of interest and/or problems to be studied.
3. Provide for genuine motivation. This is often most successfully done through student teachers' plans for pupil planning. Pupil planning usually occurs in the initial stages, where the student teacher and the pupils chart the direction of the learning experiences in the light of their interests.
4. Determine the methods best suited to the job. The plan should contain definite, specific provisions as to

how the learning is to take place—what the teacher is to do and what the pupils are to do.

5. Make plans that will contain a range of activities. Move from one experience to another in such a way that activities are related and integrated. Items which should receive consideration in the planning are:
 - a. Tasks for the individual and for the group.
 - b. Assignments—to care for individual differences and to motivate learning.
 - c. Problems.
 - d. Types of information needed and where to find it.
 - e. Board work.
 - f. Reports or floor talks.
 - g. Library work.
 - h. Forums, panels, debates.
 - i. Laboratory experiences (and the classroom may well be the laboratory).
 - j. Field trips, excursions.
 - k. Illustrative materials and resource persons.
 - l. Ways and means to be used to reorganize and redirect experiences.
6. Provide for work-study periods under teacher supervision. Leave pupils free to work. The teacher is the co-worker.
7. Prepare materials that are teacher made.
8. Prepare tests or other evaluative criteria so that objectives set for the area to be covered may be tested.
9. Provide for means of relating the work to the out-of-school activities of the pupils.
10. Indicate the estimated time limits when various phases of the work should be completed.

The student teacher needs to know the ground he expects to cover and must look far ahead in order to make the plans that will include what needs to be learned. He makes basic plans which the pupils build on with questions, suggestions, and the telling of experiences. Before the work on a unified experience starts the teacher and pupils list the goals; the teacher selects and gathers reading and other resource mate-

rials for the different ability levels of children and for himself. The pupils are alert to collecting and bringing in resource materials. The teacher makes a tentative outline of what he hopes to accomplish, listing purposes and the kinds of experiences necessary to bringing about learning. He decides on the concepts he hopes will be clarified and developed by the pupils through this study. The student teacher and the pupils together discuss the work to be done and decide on areas to be explored, problems to be solved, and questions to be answered by the study. From day to day they plan together various learnings which the pupils need, and they follow these into new learnings. They evaluate each finished segment of the work. They plan for succeeding steps and then move ahead as the work is completed and as evaluations are made.

Every unified experience of teaching should contain:

1. Reading for skills.
2. Reading for information.
3. Reading for enjoyment.
4. Listening, writing, and speaking.
5. Pupil-teacher planning.
6. Evaluation and sharing of learning.

Whether the idea for the unit or area of study comes from the pupils or from the teacher, it is the teacher's job to make it a real and meaningful experience based on the interests and needs of the particular group of children which he teaches. As can be seen, no single teaching plan can be successfully used by several teachers. The activities involved in the short-term plan which follows are not intended to serve as a perfect set of blueprints for any pupil or teacher. Rather, this summary is presented so that the general procedures may be seen more clearly.

On the first day after their return from the summer vacation, the second grade children were engaged in a sharing period, telling about the things that they had seen or done during the summer. One boy gave a rather long and detailed account of

his trip to the western part of the United States. He told about seeing some Indians on a reservation and from this point the other children led the discussion into a questioning period of where the Indians lived, how they had lived, and other questions relating to the home life of the Plains Indians. The teacher immediately discerned that there was a considerable amount of interest and decided that the first area of study for the group might well be centered about the home life of American Indians.

On the next day the teacher asked the second grade children to group themselves around the large colorful social studies bulletin board. They read the title of the bulletin board: "How Did the Plains Indians Make a Tepee?" Several large pictures of tepees were arranged attractively on the bulletin board. Each picture had a caption beneath it. During this discussion period the children's attention was directed to the pictures showing the shape of the tepee, the designs on the tepee, and what the inside of the tepee looked like. As they looked at the pictures, various children read the explanatory captions. During this study of the bulletin board, comments like these were made by the children:

We're going to make our own tepee, aren't we?

They used buffalo hides, but I don't know how they put them together.

How did they put all those designs on?

Are you sure the whole family could get in one tepee?

I'll bet this is another job that the poor Indian woman had to do!

After the bulletin board material had been discussed thoroughly, the teacher asked the children to sit on the floor near the "Indian table." She then took an authentic model of a tepee from the table and said, "This model of a tepee was made by Frank Linderman. He has written books about Indians and has lived with them. This model is authentic. Can anyone tell what *authentic* means?"

The answers to this were: "It's just the same as a real one." "He made it just like the Indians made their tepees." After these comments the teacher said, "I have a description of an Indian village that I'd like to read to you before we raise problems. I'm going to read from *Man in Nature* by Carl Sauer." The reading of a brief description of the tepees in an Indian village concluded this exploratory lesson.

After this exploratory period, during which use was made of a bulletin board, an authentic model, reading by the teacher, and general teacher-pupil discussion, the children were ready to "ask questions" or to raise problems. On the following day the teacher said, "As you ask questions, think of the things we need to know before we can make a tepee ourselves." She wrote on the board, "How did the Indians make a tepee?" As the children asked these questions, the teacher placed them on the board.

1. Who made the tepee?
2. Where did they get the poles?
3. How did they cut out the pattern?
4. What was it like inside?
5. What did they use for paints?
6. What kind of poles did they use? How many?
7. Who decorated the cover?
8. How did they keep it warm?
9. Why did they use a tepee for their home?
10. How could they take it down so fast?
11. How did they put the cover on the poles?

When the question, "Did they use poles?" was suggested, the children commented, "We don't need that question because we know they did!" The ninth question was suggested by the teacher as her contribution to the work of the class. Several questions were rephrased by the children with the teacher's help before they were included in the list. At the end of this period, the teacher said, "Let's read the questions to see if we've included the most important things. Tomorrow we'll start working to find the answers to our questions."

That afternoon the teacher noticed that many of the children were reading the captions on the bulletin board, looking at the books on the "Indian table," and examining the model of the tepee. One child was overheard saying, "It'd sure be funny to live in a house with just one room."

On Thursday the teacher began by saying, "Today we will start finding answers to some of our questions. Some of you will read at your seats and others will read with me in a small group. As you read, you may find some 'new' words. I've placed several on the board." After these words (teton knot, sinew, vegetable dyes, cured hides) were read, the teacher said, "You'll find out what these words mean as you read." The teacher then passed out various books in which the pages about making a tepee were marked. The difficulty level of these books ranged from grade two to grade five.

The rest of the children, those who were not able to work independently at this point, accompanied the teacher to one side of the room near the windows. As they were getting settled, the teacher said to those working independently, "What can you do when you finish reading?" The answers were:

1. Write the name of the book and the author.
2. Try to answer the questions—if we can't read some more.
3. Look at the bulletin board.
4. Join those who are working with us.

In this twenty-five minute study period, the children at their desks worked independently, with occasional help from the teacher. Those in the small group listened as the teacher read to them from an adult reference by Salomon entitled *The Book of Crafts and Lore*. She said, "Be sure to listen carefully because you will want to share the ideas with the class. This book has some information which the other children won't be reading."

After the study period, a brief discussion followed in which the children had time to answer or to discuss the first

three questions. Answering the question about how Indians cut the tepee cover led to some disagreement. The period was concluded after two children read aloud from their references to "prove" their answers. Then the teacher asked those who had read with her to tell how Salomon described the cutting of the tepee cover. Pooling their information in this way, the children decided that stone knives were used before the white men came, and that steel knives were used by some Indians after the white men came.

On Friday the rest of the questions were answered. During this discussion it was apparent that the children did not know what the teton knot actually was, even though several went back to the bulletin board to study the diagram and to read aloud the brief description. The teacher said, "We probably should try to tie such a knot ourselves. I had planned that we learn that while we were actually making the tepee, but let's do it now. I'll work with small groups in the back of the room. Those of you at your desks may draw some designs for the tepee cover. Use the pictures on the bulletin board or in one of the books for models. We'll work more on the designs later. So use today to experiment and to get ideas." The children at their desks worked on the designs, while successive groups came to the back of the room to learn how to tie the teton knot.

That afternoon during a short "free time" period many children worked on designs. Several did more experimenting with the teton knot. Three children read mimeographed Indian stories which were placed in a folder on the "Indian table."

On Monday, Bill asked if he could show the class some pictures of tepees that were "real good." He showed the class several pictures in Bernard DeVoto's *Across the Wide Missouri*. While Bill was showing the pictures, the teacher remarked that they were prints of old pictures painted by an artist who actually traveled through much of the Plains Indian country long ago.

Then the teacher said, "Let's put our information in chart

form. What facts do you think are most important?" Some of the comments were:

How to make the tepee.

What we need to know so we can make ours.

All about the frame and the cover.

It took thirty-five minutes of hard pupil-teacher work to list the steps in making a tepee. More reading and occasional references to the model and the bulletin board clarified points like, "How did they fasten the cover on the frame?" The teacher asked at different times: "Is that a step in making the tepee?" "Are you helping us when you tell how they held their war dance?" "Are you sure that's the next step?" This summarizing period was concluded by having several children read all of the steps listed on the chart. The teacher said, "I think you did a good job in listing the steps." The children commented, "It sure took work to write all of them." "Can we start the tepee tomorrow?"

The teacher remarked, "Yes, but we'll probably have to do more planning and studying before we begin making it. The steps we've listed are a good start!"

The detailed description above, a cross-sectional look at the problem method in an actual classroom situation, was given for this reason: It illustrates one of the basic tenets in good teaching, namely, the *why* and the *how* of instructional procedures are both important. Emphasis is placed on aims and also on specific suggestions for achieving these aims. An anecdote may illustrate this point. It concerns the remark which a grubby-faced and tired little six-year-old made when he got lost. He said, "I knew where I was goin' but I just didn't know how to 'git' there." Knowing how to "git there" might very well be as important for teachers as it was for this six-year-old!

A brief summary of the procedures used in the problem approach includes the following points:

1. The exploratory lesson was used in an orientation period. It was planned to arouse interest in the tepee

and to develop a background of information so that the children would be able to ask meaningful questions. Different materials were used. The teacher read to the children and an informal discussion took place as they sat on the floor near the "Indian table" and the bulletin board.

2. During the problem-raising period the children had the responsibility of asking questions to guide their study of the tepee. They asked questions to which they wanted to find answers. A guide question, "How did they make the tepee?" was used. The teacher encouraged the children to evaluate the importance and relevance of questions. As the children raised problems, the teacher wrote them on the board. Occasionally, with the help of the other children, a question was reworded or combined with another.
3. The research period was planned to help the children to find answers to their questions. Individual differences in reading ability and in the ability to work independently were considered. The children who could not read well enough and who, because of this lack of proficiency, could not work independently read with the teacher. They were given the responsibility of listening carefully and discussing information which was to be reported to the other children. (This technique is used most extensively in the primary grades.) Those who worked independently read books which ranged from grade two to grade five in level of difficulty.
4. During the period for answering questions, the class reported what they had read in the different books. They pooled the results of the research period, using the list of questions as a guide for discussion. Frequently answers were verified by re-reading, by the oral reading of a pertinent section, and by reference to the model or the bulletin board.
5. On Friday, the teacher changed her tentative lesson plans in order to utilize what she considered to be an excellent learning situation. It was difficult, even after some reading, discussion, and the studying of the dia-

gram, to "know how" to tie a teton knot. The teacher dealt with the problem when it arose by asking some children to experiment with designs as she showed small groups how to tie a teton knot.

6. In order to write the summary, the children had to recall and to organize the facts which they had learned. They worked as a group, dictating to the teacher the steps which the Indians used in making a tepee, steps which, modified only when necessary, they would follow in making a tepee themselves! It was not easy for these second grade children to organize their information but they were highly motivated and with the teacher's help and suggestions they wrote an adequate summary.²

Merely to facilitate description, this particular situation was used to illustrate the problem method. Since a brief abstractive description is necessarily selective, it may be well to note that each situation in which the problem approach is used varies considerably with the particular group of children, the teacher, the content, the grade level, resource materials, and so on. Stages merge one into another and varying emphases are placed on each stage. Also, many teaching procedures other than those illustrated here are often used. However, it is apparent that the success of the method depends on superior teaching ability. A teacher who understands children *and* teaching procedures, who uses different materials *and* knows content, in other words, a well-trained teacher, is essential to the success of the problem method. This is true regardless of the particular curriculum within which it happens to be used. The quality of learning experiences depends on the skill and the understanding of the classroom teacher.

If the block or unit plan has been developed with vision and understanding, the student teacher is then ready to consider the third step in his planning—the daily lesson.

² These second grade experiences took place in the Laboratory School, University of Iowa. They are used with permission.

39. *Individual Lesson Plans Serve as Guides to Desirable Classroom Experiences.*

A lesson plan is a specific guide for the day's work that is necessary in order to make definite and proper provision for the carrying out of a part of the long-range or unit plan. It is one phase of the larger problem. It should be carefully prepared with a clear conception of its contribution to the total learning situation.

The continuity and the sequential development in the long-range plan and the relatedness of the unit plans should make the planning of each day's lesson a relatively simple matter. Its direction has been determined, for its purpose is to insure that each day's activities move forward the whole purpose. The daily plan cannot be conceived in any relation except as a logical and psychological outgrowth of the two preliminary plans. This does not mean that the daily plan is unimportant. It is one of the most important and operationally functional types of planning.

No beginning teacher can afford to appear before a group of children without a carefully prepared plan for the day's work. Student teachers certainly should write the plans and receive the help of the supervising teacher before trying to use them. This is of the utmost importance since there should never be a chance of the student teacher's appearing before the class without knowing exactly what he is going to do.

Although there is much disagreement as to the amount of detail to be included in the daily plan, these elements have received wide acceptance:

1. The day's objectives or purposes formulated in their relation to the unit objectives, teacher's objectives, pupil objectives.
2. Activities:
 - a. Procedures—order of activities, transition from one to another, variety.
 - b. Blocks of subject matter, skills, and concepts.

3. Expected outcomes.
4. Time budget for the various aspects or phases of the day's work—as a guide to prevent waste of time or loss of direction.
5. Illustrations in sufficient quantity and variety; visualizing clearly how each illustration is to serve the purposes and determining not to hurry to generalizations. Too many illustrations are better than too few.
6. Statements of questions or problems which are to serve as unifying, clarifying, or synthesizing agents. Summarizing elements are important.
7. Assignment: clear, definite, specific—*what* is to be done, *how* it is to be done, *why* it is to be done. Help the pupil plan so that the assignment arises naturally from something the pupils are doing in relation to the unit objectives. This planning may lead into further related activities. Encourage the student teacher to plan so that he develops the assignment co-operatively with the pupils. They will then more likely be motivated by the purposes of the assignment. Furthermore, individual differences will be cared for more easily. Help the student teacher to anticipate difficulties and provide for them. Consider with him the study habits which his assignments foster. Help him to sense the psychological moment for making an assignment.

The daily plan is flexible, saves time, frees the teacher from anxiety, and allows him freedom for going along with the activity of the moment. It weaves together threads of each day's activities into a fabric the design of which was created by the long-range plan.

The lesson plan is the teacher's reminder of achievements and objectives to be reached in the day's work. It should contain the teacher's objectives, for his own use, and pupil objectives to be developed with the members of the class by definitely planned processes and procedures. The plan should contain activities and suggested study material to be used by the class, with the teacher in the background to guide and direct the

learning process. To be able to guide capably, the teacher should possess a comprehensive understanding of the subject matter, materials, and possible activities that could be used for meeting any difficulties that might arise. He needs to understand his class collectively and individually and to be able to see that in the forming of committees or work groups the responsibilities are placed according to the abilities of the pupil—to bring out the best possible personal development. He must know the most effective teaching techniques and how to use them efficiently. The plan used for a former class may not fit the one in progress because of individual differences and varied experiences of the class members. The teaching goals and the class goals may be the same in each class but method of accomplishment may be widely different.

In the long-range plan many important aspects of lesson planning have already been mentioned; many of the objectives will have been determined through the long-range or the unit plan. The daily lesson plan is primarily dependent upon the general plan and should be an integral part of it. The daily plan should not be too exhaustive, for learning is a slow process. It is better to have done a lesser program well than to cover more ground imperfectly.

In the planning of the daily work the teacher should have an active imagination that will enable him to live through in advance, mentally and emotionally, the experiences he hopes to provide for the class. There are commonly two kinds of lesson plans—the memorized and the written. The memorized plan visualizes the expected activities of the class, and the teacher plans mentally for situations as he believes they will be. It requires less time for preparation and will not be misplaced, but because the span of memory is short, there is a possibility that the teacher may not remember the details clearly and may overlook some important activities or other parts of the plan. If the plan has been written in an orderly manner he can see any discrepancies in it more clearly and revise it to meet the needs more effectively. The written plan is definite and clarifies

thinking. It makes for orderly development of the plan in proper sequence. It gives the teacher more freedom in teaching and holding the interest of the class. Being ready gives the teacher a feeling of adequacy and poise that enables him to create interest and promote the activities of the class.

A good lesson plan should have the following:

1. A well formulated plan.
2. Good assignment.
3. A good summary.
4. Provision for individual differences.
5. Inclusion of pivotal questions.
6. Review.
7. Inclusion of important illustrations.
8. Content materials.
9. Motivation techniques.
10. Evaluation techniques.
11. Rough allocation of time to each phase of the lesson.
12. Attention to apperceptive learning—new related to the old.*

ACTION POINTERS

1. Include the pupils in all stages of planning.
2. Develop plans for a long-range period.
3. Be sure that daily lessons are carefully planned.
4. Budget your time wisely.
5. Acquaint yourself with the statements of objectives for education.
6. Do not hesitate to deviate from plans if better teaching-learning situations will result.
7. Make plans in terms of the needs of pupils.
8. Give the pupils a feeling of responsibility for the success of plans.
9. Provide an educative environment of freedom and responsibility.

* Bossing, Nelson L., *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942, p. 262.

10. Realize that no one instructional procedure is best in all situations.
11. Set forth objectives for your plans with care.
12. Use curriculum guides and professional materials as sources of ideas but not as road maps for your activities.
13. Become familiar with the work which pupils have done before.
14. Help the pupil see the relation of the current work to his major goals.
15. Be certain that pupils master the content, ideas, and skills involved in various assignments.
16. Become thoroughly acquainted with teaching materials and resources.
17. List various methods and procedures which can be utilized in different teaching situations.
18. Develop bibliographies of materials for various areas of study.
19. Motivate pupils to develop a desire to learn.
20. Discover the readability of materials which may be used.
21. Become acquainted with different types of planning, including block, unit, and areas of interest.
22. Make plans which contain a range of activities.
23. Assign work which will provide for individual differences.
24. Provide for work-study periods under teacher supervision.
25. Use materials which are teacher-made.
26. Provide means of relating the class work with out-of-school activities.
27. Determine estimated time limits when various phases of the work should be completed.
28. Encourage reading for skills, information, and enjoyment.
29. Summarize work which has been covered at periodic intervals.
30. Make assignments absolutely clear.
31. Provide sufficient illustrations to make meanings clear.
32. Give attention to apperceptive learning, relating the new to the old.

PROBLEMS

1. In planning for teaching, what does each of the following contribute:
 - a. Democracy in planning?
 - b. An understanding of a variety of techniques?
 - c. A wide acquaintanceship with materials of instruction?
2. What factors should the teacher consider as he plans his instruction? What are the best means of determining what the factors are?
3. Assume that the pupils have suggested several areas of interest for future work, how can the teacher best judge these suggestions and guide the discussion so that the pupils will select the one which would be of greatest value?
4. Select a problem in your teaching field and summarize the steps by which you would prepare your instructional plan on a short-term basis.
5. How would you incorporate reasoning and problem solving as objectives in the area that you will teach?
6. Prepare an over-all plan for an entire semester for one of the groups which you are to teach, giving the lists of materials which you would utilize.
7. Examine the courses of study, curriculum guides, or resource units developed in various schools to secure information regarding the different types of plans which may be developed.
8. List general objectives which you would seek in your teaching regardless of the subject involved.

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ACTION APPROACH

1. *What are some of the means which may be employed to familiarize teachers with materials of instruction which are most effective?*
2. *How may audio-visual materials be used most effectively in various teaching-learning situations?*
3. *What is meant by "communication of ideas"?*
4. *Why is the process of selecting textbooks and other instructional materials such an important one?*
5. *How may community resources be made into effective materials of instruction?*
6. *What are some of the major factors which should be considered in the selection of materials for classroom use?*
7. *What are the most important criteria to be utilized in selecting textbooks?*

VII.

SELECTING AND USING MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

THE CONCEPT that a sound educational program should be concerned with the problems, needs, and interests of those for whom the program is conducted is directly related to the problems of selecting and utilizing materials of instruction in the most effective way possible. Every pupil should be assisted in achieving all of which he is capable; each boy or girl should have materials which will bring forth the best in each individual. It should not be imagined, however, that materials of instruction appear automatically. In reality, the teacher has many responsibilities in selecting, producing, and using materials of instruction wisely and effectively. If student teaching is to help with the problem, experiences should be provided which will assist prospective teachers to understand the importance of securing the best materials of instruction which are available. The student who learns to promote learning

successfully through meeting individual differences profits by opportunities to become acquainted with numerous types of materials which embrace many media and which are pitched at varying levels of difficulty.

40. *Student Teaching Provides Opportunities for Prospective Teachers to Become Acquainted with Materials of Instruction.*

Good teachers seize upon available opportunities to familiarize themselves with the latest and best instructional aids. Through bibliographies which have been developed, or may be constructed in connection with various areas of the curriculum, student teachers may become acquainted with the materials in their fields. It is not enough for the student to know only the major books in his own field of endeavor; he must also know something of the publications and materials in related fields. One way of developing such an acquaintanceship is through work in school and college libraries. For example, one of the most successful history teachers in Kentucky has for many years kept a card file of books and other materials related to her field. Whenever she finds a book or an article which has some bearing on her areas of work, she makes a note of the pertinent data about the material and the author. Usually a brief summary is to be found among her notes. Through this plan she has built a file which is a source of help not only to her but to her pupils as well. Such a method is possible for every teacher. If each beginning teacher would start a file such as this, there is little question but that teaching and learning would be greatly improved.

The plan described makes it more nearly possible for the teacher to locate materials of instruction to suit the reading level of the individuals concerned. For example, a sixth grade teacher found it necessary to supply three different versions of the same general material about ancient Greece and Rome which his pupils were studying. Fortunately his background

and his diligence in cataloguing materials on different reading levels made it possible for him to meet these differing needs. Obviously, such problems are not usually met successfully through spur-of-the-moment actions, but are solved through planning which takes place in advance of the actual occurrences.

Supplementary materials are needed on all grade levels in order to care for the problems of the slower learning pupils and also to provide additional challenges to the gifted children, who are often forgotten or neglected. Files and bibliographies are extremely helpful in meeting the needs of slow and rapid learners. In addition, files of community resources, including both material and human resources, are found to be increasingly valuable by teachers who are striving to relate their teaching to the needs of the communities in which their schools are located.

Recently a teacher who had done his student teaching several years before said, "I wish that someone had told me how important it was to become familiar with different kinds of instructional materials while I was doing my student teaching." It is true that no one had "told" him of the importance of learning about and working with materials of instruction; however, the opportunity was there and he just did not avail himself of it. The alert student teacher is always ready to search for and develop new materials which can add to the effectiveness of the teaching process. Familiarity with bibliographies, books, periodicals, audio-visual materials, and community resources is a necessary and integral part of the experiential background of every student teacher.

41. Audio-Visual Materials Have Wide Utilization in Many Teaching Situations.

The primary reason for using audio-visual materials in teaching is to improve the communication of ideas. To improve communication is to make learning more effective. Teaching

and learning would be immeasurably improved if each teacher would take only a moment or two each day to determine whether or not he was really communicating effectively with his students.

If one checks the derivation of the word *communicate*, he will find that the root idea is "to make common." This is essentially the basic idea behind the use of audio-visual materials. Many times teachers fail to communicate their ideas properly through the spoken word or by means of textual matter; however, when pictures or other media are employed the meanings and ideas become more understandable to the pupils.

Communication is usually improved when concrete or specific objects are involved; however, communication often breaks down when the words or symbols are not on the level of concrete or specific experiences. At this point, audio-visual aids become a real tool of learning. Critics of audio-visual materials have charged that the proponents of the aids have tried to do away with reading; however, if one recognizes that audio-visual materials merely complement or supplement the written or spoken word of the teacher, then it will be clear that such charges are groundless.

As an illustration of the concept of supplementing the materials when concreteness is not possible in the textual material, the following example is included. On a recent test given to high school seniors two very similar items were stated. In the first question the students were asked to find the cost of seven theater tickets if one cost sixty-seven cents with tax included. The second question, however, was a more general one. The seniors were asked how much x tickets would cost if one ticket cost y cents. Although every one of the seniors solved the first problem correctly, over fifteen per cent missed the second problem, largely because they could not conceptualize something which was not absolutely concrete. It was at this point that visual aids were employed to show the pupils through blackboard illustrations what x and y meant in this problem.

Sound ideas for the use of audio-visual materials would rule

out the indiscriminate showing of films or the unplanned viewing of television or listening to the radio. Only when audio-visual materials are related to the material under consideration and only when the materials can add something to the learning experience should they be used. Learning theories stress the importance of need-centered learning activities which will assist the learner to deal most effectively with his problem. Materials of the audio-visual nature should never, therefore, be the determinant of the learning activity. One definite implication of the principle just stated is that block bookings of films, auditorium presentations as a substitute for classroom films, and other such practices which make it extremely difficult to co-ordinate audio-visual materials with classroom situations are open to serious question and are of doubtful value as real learning devices.

The selection of audio-visual materials is an important responsibility of the teacher. One of the major points to be remembered by the student teacher is that every film, recording, or other prepared audio-visual material should be previewed before it is presented to the class. Only through such procedure can the teacher relate the materials to the lessons under consideration and be certain that the materials are appropriate in every respect for the class.

Too often it appears that the teacher feels that films are the only audio-visual materials which are available for use. In reality, there are hundreds of different materials and media. The effective teacher considers all possible devices and then selects the one which seems most useful and effective. For example, a geometry teacher in explaining a point regarding the volume of a circular object may find that the blackboard with its flat surface is not satisfactory for making his point clear. One resourceful teacher merely reached down and lifted the wastebasket to his desk and used this object for his explanation. This common object proved to be just as useful and effective in this teaching situation as any visual aid could possibly have been.

Whatever the media employed, whether it be films, recordings, radio, television, mock-ups, drawings, or something else, the excellent student teacher relates it carefully to the regular teaching presentation. A preview, the preparation of the class for the audio-visual material, the actual presentation, and then the follow-up—all are essential steps if the most is to be gained from audio-visual teaching techniques. A question or two may be sufficient in the follow-up period, but usually the material presented deserves considerable discussion and perhaps even further assignments.

Certain competencies, skills, and understandings are necessary if teachers are to utilize audio-visual materials most effectively. The most significant of these are:

1. An understanding of the psychology of learning and its relationship to audio-visual materials.
2. An understanding of the fact that audio-visual materials and techniques are applicable in all areas of the curriculum and at all levels.
3. A recognition that audio-visual materials cannot replace the teacher but will only aid in making communications more effective.
4. A knowledge of the types of audio-visual materials available in the teacher's particular area of interest.
5. A knowledge of the sources of free and inexpensive materials
6. Skill in the operation and care of the most common pieces of audio-visual equipment.
7. Skill in the use of the materials themselves.

42. Textbook Selection Is a Responsibility in Which Teachers Should Participate.

During the past two decades some of the most scientific and accurate research work in the field of education has been conducted by the textbook publishers of America. Growing out of this research have come better books and more effective ways of presenting materials of learning. The basic content of each

subject area has been carefully studied and the psychological bases for presenting the materials have been emphasized. As a result of this improvement, teachers have an even greater responsibility now than ever before to select the materials which will be of greatest value to their pupils.

Although greater emphasis is being placed on locally developed materials than was formerly the case, textbooks are still essential to effective teaching and learning. For many years superintendents and principals apparently felt that it was their duty to select all texts; however, that method of selection is no longer used in the best schools, because it is believed that teachers are the persons most concerned with the textbooks and other teaching aids and are, therefore, the persons who should select them. Various methods have been developed to make it possible for those concerned to make wise selections of the materials which they are to use. Many school systems use a committee method of selecting textbooks. These committees generally represent various grade levels and different subject areas, and, even though the responsibility is a shared one, each teacher usually has some individual assignments and is called upon to exercise the best possible personal judgment.

The selection of materials of instruction can be simply a process of applying some rating scale devised by a commercial concern, or it can be an experience in which basic curriculum assumptions are analyzed. What is more, an examination of the purposes for which the materials are being selected and the validity of these purposes is a valuable part of the experience of selecting materials. It is, therefore, essential that the teachers make a thorough study of the program of the school before actually moving on to the activities of selecting materials. Certainly, the methods of instruction emphasized in the particular school become important considerations. While rating scales or score cards may occasionally be used to good advantage, the most successful selection committees are ones which de-

wise their own criteria in terms of their particular needs and problems.

In order that the teacher may not have to refer to the textbook as "that one with the green back" or "the book with the purple map on the front," certain pertinent information is recorded for every book examined. Such data include:

1. The name of the author or authors.
2. The exact title.
3. The name and address of the publisher.
4. The date of publication.
5. The cost of the book.
6. The content of the book.

With this information at hand the teacher then looks carefully at the book with the following questions in mind:

1. Does the author's preparation and his point of view indicate that the book would be compatible with the philosophy of the teacher and the school?
2. Are the format and the typography suitable and attractive?
 - a. Is the cover artistic and yet durable?
 - b. Is the printing clear and of suitable size for the grade level involved?
 - c. Are pictures, diagrams, and tables accurate and effective?
3. Does the book contain sufficient material on the subject or subjects to be taught to make it a valuable and useful book?
4. From the table of contents does it appear that the book covers the areas desired?
5. Are the contents organized in such a way as to facilitate teaching?
6. Are sufficient explanations given to aid in understanding and is the style interesting and understandable?
7. Is the vocabulary suitable for the levels to be served?
8. Are provisions made to care for individual differences, needs, and abilities of the pupils?
9. Is provision made for reviews or summaries?

10. Does the book point toward the objectives which the committee has established?

The answers to the questions will supply helpful information regarding the value of the book to the school or the system involved in the selection. Through the type of co-operative action indicated in selecting materials of instruction, the teachers render a real service to the school, the pupils, and the community. While it is unlikely that a teacher will ever find a textbook which seems to do all of the things he desires, it is important to select the best available textbook for the specific needs of the subject to be covered, for the particular needs of the pupils to be taught, and for the community in which they live.

43. *Community Resources Are Effective Materials of Instruction.*¹

The program of a good school is designed to give its pupils the elemental understandings, skills, attitudes, and habits by which more complex attainments may be gained. Of these understandings, knowledge of the natural and societal environment of a community has considerable importance. Each day the pupil is in contact with his environment; each day, learning arises from the interaction of his personality with the environment; and each day, he becomes more secure through his understanding of and control over the environment, or he becomes less secure and less direct in his approaches to problems which the environment presents. The Wilson Dam School in Alabama is an excellent example of a school which capitalized upon the community resources available.

This school was set in a natural environment of great interest, although the environment could be matched by that of almost

¹ Materials contained in Principle 43 have been extracted, with permission, from the following bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky. Maunce F. Seay and William J. McGlothlin, *Elementary Education in Two Communities of the Tennessee Valley*, Vol. XIV, No. 3 (March, 1942), pp 69, 70

any other rural school. Behind the school was a dry stream bed which separated the school from a tree-covered hill, beyond which ran the Tennessee River. Many of the discoveries made by pupils and teachers on walks about the school were brought back to the classroom for closer observation. Tiny plants and ferns, mosses, and fungi filled a terrarium; snakes were sometimes found in the woods near the school; toads, frog eggs, and a bat were collected and observed. Shells and rocks were identified with the help of books. Bones of dogs, cows, and horses washed up by the river or found in swampy pasture land were studied and classified.

The phrase "poor soil" took on new meaning as the garden was prepared with black earth and fertilizer before spring planting. Part of the playground was eroded. A forestry nursery provided seedlings to plant in the eroded areas. Thus the children learned how farmers can reforest their land and turn eroded gullies to productive use.

There were many signs of ancient habitation. The children explored excavations made by archaeologists along the banks of the river and learned that the earliest known people of the Southeast lived here two thousand years ago. The community environment of the school was also explored. The school was near three towns—Florence, Sheffield, and Tusculumbia, Alabama. The life of these towns was approached through visits to post offices, banks, broadcasting stations, railway shops, airports, dairies, waterworks, and so on. Evidences of colonial life survived in several homes of the area, where the children saw patchwork quilts, candle molds, and poster beds. Trips to other cities—such as Nashville and Memphis, Tennessee—gave perspective to judgments on local situations.

The activities of the Tennessee Valley Authority were a special factor in the environment. The specialists of its Muscle Shoals staff explained their work to the school. The manufacture of fertilizer, the production of electricity, the development of navigation and flood control, all of which the children could observe daily, were sources of continuing interest.

The school used excursions, visits, reading, discussion, and collections to increase the understanding of the environment. One boy remarked on the way back from a school excursion, "Now everybody will know we're not just school people—we've been somewhere." As the communities were explored the sense of having "been somewhere" increased, the confidence in ability to meet the environments developed. The immediate experiences became the basis for future learning. To know such environments was the first step toward adjustment to them and toward ability to manipulate and modify them.

The example indicates clearly several of the important principles involved in the development of community resources as materials of instruction. It is necessary, first, to analyze carefully the extent and scope of the resources; second, to decide upon the techniques for utilizing these resources; third, to carry out the plans for using the resources; and fourth, to evaluate the results and make plans for next steps. Again, it is emphasized that field trips, visiting speakers, and other resources cannot replace the teacher, but they can very definitely supplement the teaching devices employed and give real meaning to areas of great value and importance. It is quite important that the teacher catalogue and study available resources just as he would books or journals. Only through a systematic and scientific approach can the best use be made of community resources.

44: Materials of Instruction Should Be Selected in Terms of the Levels of Pupil Ability and Interest.

As has been indicated, one of the greatest challenges to teachers is that of meeting the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils they teach. If the challenge is to be met fully, each teacher becomes a teacher of the language arts and particularly of reading, regardless of the level or subject for which he may be responsible. Teachers have the responsibility for recognizing the individual differences in their pupils and for providing

materials of instruction which will enable each boy or girl to profit most by his or her school experiences. Such a task involves a constant perusal of materials so that items which will be of interest and will be at the proper reading level can be made available. Good teachers collect materials and are on familiar terms with the contents of the school library. The obligation for discovering materials to meet individual needs extends to the point that successful teachers often develop original materials to satisfy the demands of the various situations which may arise.

An excellent example of the development of instructional materials may be seen in the Sloan Experiment in Applied Economics.² Written instructional materials may be classified under three general headings. Most prevalent by far is the type published or manufactured commercially for use throughout the nation; such materials treat necessarily of very general topics in terms applicable to as many and as varied areas as possible. A second type of materials, issued usually by non-profit agencies, is prepared for a group of communities having common problems and similar resources; such materials can give particular and detailed consideration to matters of concern and interest to the communities. A third type of materials is prepared by teachers and pupils themselves for immediate use in their schools; these materials can, of course, be made to apply to the most intimate problems of a school and its environment. The very activity involved in the planning and manufacture of such materials is a teaching instrument.

The method of adoption, purchase, and distribution of textbooks employed in nearly all states makes materials of the first type available to every school in the state. Observations in numerous schools reveal many educational programs based entirely upon instructional materials of the first type and only a

² Seay, Maurice F., and Meece, Leonard E., *The Sloan Experiment in Kentucky*, Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Vol. XVI, No. 4 (June 1944), pp. 17-19.

few which make use of materials of either the second or the third type.

Even a casual inspection of the textbooks in use gives ready evidence of their lack of relationship to the problems of the communities in which many of the schools are located. One adopted reader in general use in Kentucky contains stories and poems about life in foreign lands, about sheep-shearing in the North and orange raising in the South, about heroes long dead and dragons that never lived; the reader contains almost nothing directly related to the everyday problems of rural Kentucky. Irrelevancy of content to a particular community, however, does not necessarily condemn materials of instruction because they may have great value in giving pupils general information concerning national and international situations, as well as pleasant reading. But if children are to learn how to live successfully, especially in environments unfavorable to the maintenance of a desirable standard of living, they must have instructional materials of the second and third types—materials concerning problems of their community and the local resources available for improvement of living in that community.

As a result of an experiment sponsored by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, materials of community interest were prepared by the Bureau of School Service at the University of Kentucky. Examples of such materials are: *We Plan a Garden*, *Sowing in the Sunshine*, and *John Raises Chickens*. The narrative form was used in the various series. The characters—even the names of the characters—were selected as typical of the experimental communities. The thread of plot running through the series was planned to stimulate the interest of the readers.

Instructional materials of the kind prepared by the Bureau of School Service fall in the second group described at the beginning of this section. They have been especially prepared for a group of communities having common problems and similar resources. One advantage of using materials of the type indicated is that materials of the third type can easily be developed out of their use. Children and teachers who read about

checking gullies on eroded hillsides become interested in checking the gullies in their own denuded schoolyard; improvement of the school environment becomes a material of instruction and a demonstration to the community.

The pupils in one of the experimental schools had read about soybeans in *We Plan a Garden*. Pursuing the subject, the children used their information to prepare reading charts for the schoolroom. Then they applied their knowledge by planting some vegetable-type soybeans in the school garden, the first ever raised in the community. The growing vegetable was a much more effective material of instruction than the mental images evoked by words or pictures in books. The children took the mature soybeans home for their interested parents to use as seeds in the next year's gardens. Thus, instructional material prepared in the school served as a direct contribution to the resources of the community. This particular example refers to rural community problems; however, materials can as readily be developed (and have been developed) for urban centers. The good teacher is the one who discovers and utilizes such materials.

One other aspect of the selection of materials for the individual levels of ability represented by the pupils is that of actually determining when material is of the proper level. Although numerous excellent and scientific tests, involving word counts and various means of measurement, have been developed, many of the tests are too complicated and too time consuming for the average teacher to use. Such complex types of measurement are more appropriately used by the textbook publishers; however, the work which the publishing companies have done can be put to excellent use by any conscientious and competent teacher, and a simple means of finding a pupil's reading level can be developed.

The teacher needs several books on which scientific tests have been run, books which are below and above the normal reading level expected of the age or grade involved. With the books the teacher can sit with an individual pupil and

ask him to read aloud from one of the easier books. If he can read a page or two selected at random from this book, he is asked to read a similar amount from the next higher level reader. The process can be continued until the pupil reaches a reader in which he finds some difficulty in reading. He will probably exhibit the difficulty by stumbling over or missing some words. When a pupil reaches the stage at which he misses as many as four or five words per page, he has reached a level above which he cannot go without experiencing a certain degree of difficulty and even frustration.

Such a procedure assists the teacher in providing materials at the level of reading indicated. The next step, obviously, would be working with the pupil, regardless of whether he is a slow, average, or rapid reader, to improve his ability. Through experiences which can be provided in word study, reading mechanics, and other areas of reading, real progress is possible, and the learning experiences needed by the various pupils can be provided.

The selection, development, and use of all types of materials of instruction calls for both ingenuity and good judgment. Student teachers should always be alert to new possibilities in the development and use of instructional materials. Through the wise use of these aids, the teacher will gain security, and the pupils will have greater and richer opportunities for learning.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Familiarize yourself with the latest and best instructional aids.
2. Visit in the school and college libraries.
3. Make notes on readings which have a bearing on your teaching.
4. Keep a file of sources of materials.
5. Strive to improve your art in communicating ideas.
6. Make ideas concrete through good illustrations.
7. Learn to operate various types of audio-visual equipment.

8. Seek all possible sources of audio-visual materials.
9. Preview different types of visual materials.
10. Make mock-ups, drawings, and other aids which will add meaning to teaching.
11. Develop a file of free and inexpensive materials.
12. Review new textbooks.
13. Select materials at the various reading levels which may be encountered in your teaching.
14. Check the format and typography of new books for attractiveness and readability.
15. Develop a file on community resources to be utilized in teaching.
16. Prepare instructional materials related to the interests of pupils.
17. Be alert to new possibilities in the use of instructional materials.
18. Encourage pupils to read in a variety of fields.
19. Provide materials of interest and value for all pupils, whether average, gifted, or slow.
20. Formulate your own criteria for selection of materials of instruction.

PROBLEMS

1. Preview some films in your area of teaching interest and then develop questions and guides for the use of the ones which you feel would be most helpful in your teaching.
2. Develop a set of criteria for the selection of textbooks in your teaching area or level. Apply the criteria to four different texts and rank these books in the order of your choice.
3. Make a list of community resources which could be used in the teaching of your particular subject area or at your level of teaching. Indicate the manner in which you would utilize the resources, that is, through field trips, pictures, speakers, and other means.

4. Select a story or article which would be of interest to your pupils but which is written in too technical or too difficult language for them to understand. Change the vocabulary to the appropriate level and reproduce the material so that the pupils may read it.
5. List all of the audio-visual aids of which you can think, excluding motion pictures, filmstrips, radio, and television.
6. Select an area of interest in your teaching and make plans for the use of the necessary audio-visual aids, community resources, and supplemental instructional materials which will be needed for teaching.

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4. Select a story or article which would be of interest to your pupils but which is written in too technical or too difficult language for them to understand. Change the vocabulary to the appropriate level and reproduce the material so that the pupils may read it.
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of the school's quality and of the ability of the teacher. Another difficulty in discussing classroom management problems derives from the fact that many different ideas about what constitutes good order in the school are currently operative. But whatever the definition of "order" or "discipline" might be, it must still be admitted that the orderly conduct of work in the classroom is essential to effective learning. The management of the classroom has sometimes been likened to the measure of health present in the educational program—just as a person's temperature is a good indication of his health. Lack of discipline in a school and high temperature in a person are both symbolic of other deep disturbances. In each case, however, it should be emphasized that the disciplinary problems and the high temperature are symptoms, and not the actual causative factors. Competent medical care and effective educational leadership are necessary to treat the causes in either instance.

While it is impossible in this one chapter to deal completely with all of the complex factors involved in behavior problems, the student should already have a good foundation for such a study through his acquaintance with the knowledge of certain characteristics of the behavior of school-age children and youth. It is hoped that the principles considered in the following pages will serve as a nucleus around which the student and supervising teacher, through further reading and experience, may develop a clear understanding of classroom management.

The principles which follow are based on three assumptions which seem quite significant:

1. There are some factors related to preparation of teaching plans, selection of materials, and use of classroom techniques which tend to prevent or cause classroom disorder.
2. In spite of all precautions, some disorder may sometimes occur, and it is the responsibility of the teacher to restore order then through skillful classroom management.

ACTION APPROACH

1. *How is good citizenship in the classroom most effectively developed?*
2. *What is meant by the statement "freedom is a thing which is earned, and is not necessarily an inalienable right"?*
3. *What are the physical factors of a classroom which contribute to effective learning?*
4. *How does the effective teacher organize classroom routine in such a manner that effort and confusion are reduced?*
5. *How can a feeling of pride or of belonging help in overcoming disciplinary problems?*
6. *What are the characteristics of a situation in which good discipline is present?*
7. *What factors should the teacher keep in mind in using punishment?*

VIII.

MANAGING

THE

CLASSROOM

IF EVERY teacher and administrator in the nation could be asked to name quite frankly and honestly the most frequent problem of beginning teachers, it is quite likely that the problem of managing the classroom and maintaining good discipline would be very high on the list. Discipline, as it relates to the school and to society, has become in recent years one of the most bitterly controversial subjects in the field of education. So bitter have been the recriminations whenever the subject has been discussed that one hesitates to become involved in the issue. Yet the ability to manage the classroom properly is such an important problem that it *must* be considered, and in some detail.

Some teachers and administrators may be reluctant to admit openly that classroom management is a problem, since success in maintaining order is generally considered to be a criterion

of control, have moved to the opposite extreme and have advocated that students be granted practically full freedom at all times. Many times, under such circumstances, order completely breaks down, largely because the pupils have not developed the necessary feelings and attitudes of responsibility to accompany such freedom. Therefore, somewhere between the extremes of the autocratic and the permissive classroom is a "happy medium," which can probably best be called the "controlled-freedom" classroom.

In such a situation boys and girls must be assisted in developing the concept that freedom is a thing which is *earned*, and is not necessarily an inalienable *right*. If such an attitude is developed, certain controls may be relaxed as students progressively demonstrate their ability to discharge responsibilities without loss of order.

Whenever pupils do not completely follow the best citizenship patterns, opportunities should be provided to help them evaluate the points at which they have failed. The chance to evaluate situations in which they have succeeded should also be provided, for the pupils will learn more effective means of self-control through both types of experiences.

When boys and girls learn that any poor conduct is harmful to the best interests of the group, the group is on its way to the successful solution of the problems of classroom management. The achievement of self-control is an evolutionary process, and one on which the teacher and pupils must work together.

Undoubtedly the most opportune times to develop better attitudes toward self-control come while pupils are in rather "natural" situations. Working with pupils in group situations presents opportunities to develop sound patterns of behavior. If such an approach is employed, ample opportunity should also be given to evaluate behavior in terms of the principles established by the group. Through such evaluative experiences, group attitudes are developed, and these attitudes can become

3. The antisocial behavior of a few, while sometimes unavoidable and also understandable, should not cause other members of the class to be denied their rightful opportunities to learn.

45. *Good Citizenship in the Classroom Is Based upon Intelligent Self-control.*

Concepts of good classroom management formerly regarded good pupil behavior as a result of pressure applied by the teacher. Pupils were seldom—if ever—permitted to act in a normal or natural manner. More recent ideas concerning discipline and order hold that management and discipline are not externally developed. According to the newer concept, it can be readily seen that good order should be present at all times, rather than just when pressure is applied by the teacher.

A full understanding of this principle necessitates knowledge on the part of the student teacher of the fact that boys and girls must have some means for occasionally "letting off steam." It would follow, therefore, that the teacher would, on most occasions, create the opportunity for the pupils to react in the manner normal to their particular grade or age levels.

A teacher must have faith in the desire and the ability of pupils to do those things which are proper. Let the pupils know that you have confidence in them, and if by chance they should fail to live up to the faith which you have indicated, examine with the children the behavior which would be acceptable in the situation. The teacher who constantly looks for trouble and problems will usually find them. For example, the teacher who always told his class that other classes in previous years had thrown erasers when he was out of the room, and that he did not want anything like that to take place in this class, was in reality displaying a lack of faith by mentioning the matter.

Some modern proponents of "permissiveness" in the classroom, in an effort to break away from the authoritarian type

46. *Good Physical Facilities within the Classroom Contribute to Effective Learning.*

Factors such as lighting, ventilation, and room arrangement can play a large part in the development of good classroom situations. Experimentation has recently been conducted in an effort to determine whether or not such factors as those mentioned above materially affect the climate of learning. It has been discovered that not only do pupils learn better under good physical conditions in the room but also conduct themselves in a manner which makes better learning possible. A room which is dark or stuffy is not conducive to good learning or good behavior. The room which is dull and unattractive, without any color or decoration, is more like a prison cell than a room in which learning is to take place.

Miss Jones, in an Illinois school, found that the pupils in her fifth grade class were far more proud of their room and were more interested in classroom management problems as a result of a co-operative venture—to purchase three pictures for their room. In like manner, a school administrator from Arizona indicates that the addition of a bulletin board in a high school class produced some remarkable results in increased learnings. Certainly, it should not be inferred that the purchase of a few pictures or the installation of a new bulletin board will solve all of the behavior problems of a group. It must be admitted, however, that these things are important factors in good classroom management.

Some twenty or thirty years ago one of the main features of books on teaching was the information regarding the physical facilities of a good classroom situation. Such things as the proper height for the shades, the temperature to be maintained, and the number of items to be displayed per square foot of bulletin board space were covered in the textbooks. It is recognized now that persons going into teaching have enough common sense and intelligence to know when a room is too cold or too hot, when it is too dark or when there is a glare; however,

the most effective deterrents to misconduct by the individual or the group. With proper guidance the pupils themselves will be the first to call attention to any deviation from the patterns which they have established.

In a study by Lucien B. Kinney, for the California Council on Teacher Education, the competent teacher is described as one who, in addition to other things, is able to:

Maintain an effective balance of freedom and security in classroom.

- a. Demonstrate ability to plan co-operatively with pupils.
- b. Develop pupil leadership and responsibility increasingly.
- c. Provide democratic classroom organization and procedure.
 - (1) Large and small group activities.
 - (2) Opportunities for leadership and co-operation.
- d. Provide opportunity for independent, critical thinking—emphasis on freedom of expression, open-mindedness.
- e. Provide for wide participation, at various levels of ability.
- f. Provide opportunity to develop attitudes deemed socially, psychologically, biologically desirable.¹

One additional competence seems necessary if the teacher is not to become discouraged in matters of classroom management. It is important to remember that there will be individual differences in self-control abilities, just as there will be differences in the ability to learn at a certain level or rate of speed. The pupil who tries hard, but whose conduct is not completely up to the standards set by the teacher and the pupils, may benefit far more from understanding than from punishment.

¹ Kinney, Lucien B., *Measure of a Good Teacher* (Monograph), California Teachers Association, 1952, p. 18.

Many of the routine tasks necessary in the establishment of the classroom machinery may be performed by the pupils as valuable learning experiences. For example, such jobs as distributing materials, collecting money for various drives, and recording pupil absences may be delegated to pupils. Not only does the teacher gain time for other responsibilities, but the pupil also receives great values from the opportunity to participate in these activities. Just imagine all the energy for more creative tasks that the teacher would be robbed of if he had to handle all these matters himself! Have as many of these jobs as possible (all, in upper grades) handled by monitors. Try to have a job for every pupil. Each job may be assigned to two pupils who share the work to assure that the job is done in the event of the absence of one. When both pupils are present, one can take the job in the morning and one in the afternoon, or they can take it on alternate days; but the responsibility must be undertaken seriously. This gives every pupil a share in the functioning of the class—a feeling that the class is his. The development of this social feeling is, after all, one of the ultimate objectives of all teaching.

Good record-keeping is an essential for every class. A class seating chart instead of an alphabetized roll can become in the hands of an effective teacher a valuable technique for preventive discipline. The teacher who does not know the names of the pupils from the first day of school is asking for difficulties. Of course, it is impossible for a teacher to learn all names immediately; but a seating chart makes it possible to connect a pupil with a certain seat and thereby minimizes various disciplinary problems. A seating chart is an easy item to make; however, it is amazing to notice how many teachers either through ignorance or laziness cause themselves untold grief by their failure to utilize the device. There can certainly be no excuse for the practice of a teacher who was recently observed during the seventh week of a school term still pointing to pupils in the room and designating them by "You—in the blue sweater—go to the board," or "Will the boy on the

the mark of the good teacher is the ability to see these bad features immediately and then to do something to remedy the situation as rapidly as possible. Such action will be a positive factor in preventing problems of classroom management or in correcting problems if they already exist.

47. *Effective Organization of Classroom Routine Reduces Effort and Confusion to a Minimum.*

Every vocation and profession has certain techniques or tricks-of-the-trade, and teaching is certainly no exception. The creative and realistic teacher (these descriptive terms are not contradictory) is one who introduces certain measures which are of a preventive nature in an effort to forestall problems of classroom management.

The basic aim of teaching is to produce learning. But there is much to be done in order to assure that there shall be created in the classroom the conditions which will make teaching possible. One cannot simply come into a new class armed with a teaching plan and start to teach. No real teaching can be accomplished unless there is created in the classroom an atmosphere of rapport between teacher and pupils. When this is done, the rest is relatively easy.

The operation of a classroom is a complex process. The indispensable rapport for actual teaching requires the establishment of a smooth functioning machinery for class routine, and conversely, the proper and skillful establishment of such machinery is one of the most important elements in the creation of rapport. Failure to understand and apply this principle is usually at the root of a great many, perhaps most, of the new teacher's problems. It is easy to place so much stress on organization and management problems that these become the end of teaching. That is, it is possible to have a mechanically smooth-running classroom with little substance. For the new teacher, the immediate problem is to establish the management machinery as a *condition* for the creative job of teaching.

ing the action to be taken. Certainly, small annoyances which persist, and apparently might grow to such proportions that the entire class would be disturbed, should be stopped. However, if the disturbance is a very minor one, and is not annoying to other members of the class, sometimes it is better to ignore it or wait until some opportunity presents itself to discuss it with the individual in a very quiet and unobtrusive manner.

On the other hand, when a teacher is faced with a problem of major proportions, whether it be one which affects only one person or an entire class, it is often advisable to consult with other teachers or the administrator, so that the problem may be worked out in such a way that the greatest benefit will result. Many times it is wise to confer with the parents before any remedial action is taken. In serious cases the teacher should not hesitate to ask others for advice and counsel; however, it would certainly be unwise to run to others for help on every problem. Such action usually encourages the offenders to go even farther with their annoying or disturbing tactics.

49. *Esprit de Corps Is the Basis for Good Discipline.*

Just as a good athletic team depends upon team play for success, so does a class group depend upon team spirit and group loyalty for good discipline. The teacher, as well as the pupils, must be a real part of the group and all must work together with a feeling of pride in their accomplishments. The fact that there may be a wide range of ability in the group should not interfere with the development of such a spirit, for the progress and accomplishments of all are equally real, even though some may not move as far or as fast as others.

Such a principle as this one indicates quite clearly that sarcasm or irony would not promote *esprit de corps*. The teacher who depends upon sarcasm to control the class may have good order; but the learning opportunities are definitely limited by such actions, and the development of the controlled-freedom concept of discipline is limited to a large degree. Time

last seat of the first row get out his books." Needless to say, the order in the classroom was poor, because many of the pupils were aware that the teacher did not even know their names. The matter of loss of pride enters into such a situation too, for nothing is more disheartening to a youngster than to feel that the teacher does not care enough about him to learn his name.

Even such matters as the returning of test papers or the making of daily assignments can be done in such a way as to minimize confusion. The careful and thoughtful teacher will arrange the papers for efficient distribution, so that it is not necessary to return them at random with all of the confusion which usually accompanies such procedure.

Promptness on the part of the teacher also reduces confusion. The teacher who stays out in the hall to visit with another teacher when the classroom period has already started quite often finds it difficult to get the class underway when he does come into the room, and thereby wastes a considerable amount of time and effort on the part of both himself and the pupils.

Effective organization also would indicate that work of some type should start on the first day of the session in order that poor habits may not be established by the pupils during the beginning days. In preparing the first assignments, special care should be exercised to be sure that they are not so difficult as to discourage pupils, and not so easy as to promote habits of sloppiness or loafing.

48. *Postponing Action on a Classroom Problem Is Effective When Further Analysis Is Needed.*

Occasionally almost every teacher is confronted with a disciplinary problem which seems unsolvable at that particular moment. Certain cases which arise out of conditions of maladjustment demand further analysis and sometimes even clinical treatment. In such circumstances some action taken on the spur of the moment may have quite negative effects. The difficulty obviously arises in trying to be discriminating regard-

persons in their class feel at home. She also explained that, because the classes had moved at slightly differing rates of speed in different subjects, there might be some things in which the new boy would be ahead of them and others in which he might be slightly behind. With this orientation, with some personal attention to Jimmy on the part of the new teacher, and with the co-operation of the parents, Jimmy became a "new citizen" and a good one.

Obviously, several factors were involved in the change of behavior. The understanding of all persons involved was a big factor, and the skill of the new teacher in handling the situation both before and after Jimmy arrived was significant. However, the fact that Jimmy was a part of the new group, was not an outcast, and was given a feeling of belonging, contributed more than anything else to the changed behavior.

When pupils develop group attitudes which in turn promote pride in their group activities, many of the major problems of classroom management have begun to be permanently solved.

50. *Good Discipline Is More Than Good Order.*

Good discipline does not mean just being quiet and sitting still, for good discipline includes full participation in the various activities of the classroom. The classroom which requires only that the pupil not disturb anyone else is breeding pupils who quite often do only that which is required and no more.

If a pupil feels that his work in school is helping him to become the kind of person he wants to become, he will then have an avenue through which he can achieve. On the other hand, if he does not receive any satisfaction from his work and cannot see how it will benefit him, then the experiences can be real barriers and can produce disciplinary problems.

Good discipline in the classroom means the controlling of the impulses and acts of the individual members of the class to the extent necessary for the creation and maintenance of

after time in studies of teacher characteristics, sarcasm has been set forth by pupils as one of the things they most disliked in teachers. Presenting such a matter from a positive point of view, the same studies reveal that students feel that a sense of humor is a most essential characteristic of successful and effective teachers. Nothing could be more necessary to the development of a feeling of loyalty and belonging than a good sense of humor on the part of both teachers and pupils.

Esprit de corps stems from co-operative action on problems of concern to the pupils. Not long ago a boy in a fourth grade class (and it could just as easily have been a twelfth grade class) began to create some real problems because of his rather antisocial behavior. He pushed other persons' books off their desks; he talked aloud while others were talking; and he generally became a problem child to the teacher and the group. When the teacher talked with the supervisor concerning the persistent problem, the supervisor helped the teacher make a rather objective analysis of the situation. Some study revealed that the teacher had remarked aloud one day that Jimmy, the fourth-grader in question, was the slowest in the class to grasp the arithmetic process being studied. Further investigation revealed that the other boys and girls "razzed" Jimmy on the way to school in the mornings and on the way home in the afternoons. They called him "dumbbell" and "lame brain." It did not take long for him to feel that he was not a part of "the team," and he took steps to show just how he felt about the matter.

Although it was usually not possible to transfer a pupil to another room in mid-semester, the supervisor and the teacher felt that the situation had gone so far that such action was justified, so Jimmy was transferred to another fourth grade class in the same school. However, before the transfer was effected, Jimmy, his parents, and the new teacher were all conferred with separately. The new teacher, who understood the situation, talked briefly with her pupils before Jimmy arrived, stressing to them the necessity for making all new

of the children and the nature of the work. However, it should be pointed out to the student teacher, that different schools have different standards and that the established administrative policies should not be disregarded.

51. Discipline Improves As Teaching Improves.

The keystone of successful teaching is the personality of the teacher. And in no phase of teaching is the influence of the teacher's personality more evident than in maintaining order in the classroom, for the classroom is a common meeting ground for many different personalities—some aggressive, some withdrawing, all immature, all with conflicting interests and desires. Yet the good teacher creates a unified, orderly classroom out of these diverse elements. And this is accomplished largely through the influence of the teacher's personality. That personality must be forceful, vital with enthusiasm and confidence. It must be based on a warm and human understanding which invites confidence and friendship. It must possess the power to secure co-operation and command respect. It should be tactful, sympathetic, and tolerant. And it should be characterized by firmness, fairness, consistency, and interest in the welfare of the children.

The student teacher should be encouraged to make a study of the desirable teaching personality and to evaluate his own. While not possessing all desirable personality traits, most student teachers will bring with them a sufficiently good personality to justify efforts at development. The supervising teacher should exercise good judgment in the selection of traits of personality for intensive development. That is, emphasis should be placed upon those desirable traits in which the student teacher shows promise. Undesirable personality traits possessed by the student teacher should be pointed out to him, and the extrinsic ones eliminated. But the supervising teacher should refrain from "nagging" the student teacher about firmly

an effective learning situation. The activities of teacher and pupils are harmoniously directed toward the attainment of a common goal—maximal growth on the part of each individual child in those desirable directions which come within the range of the school's responsibilities. Good discipline implies self-discipline on the part of the individual, based upon a decent respect for the rights of others; it implies group discipline where the individuals restrain their differing impulses and desires and allow their acts to be governed by the principles of concerted action. Discipline implies respect for constituted authority by the individual, and respect for the rights of the individual by authority; it also implies some means of control. Whenever possible, inner control, or self-control, by the individual should be allowed to govern his conduct, but when necessary external control or compulsion must be applied, it should be applied humanely and in such a manner as to be consistent with the dignity of a human being. Discipline implies the establishing of desirable behavior patterns, with decreasing external control and increasing inner control on the part of the individual; it implies the *recognition* of a common purpose by teacher and pupils and assumes it to be imperative that the classroom situation be prevented from deteriorating into one with teacher and pupils arrayed against each other; it implies that, because the purpose of the classroom is the growth of each individual child, classroom order and routine should promote the development of the child as an individual; finally, it implies very definitely that none of the following has a place in the classroom: dictatorship by the teacher, anarchy, mob rule by the pupils, abusive treatment of children, license on the part of the children.

The classroom should be a pleasant place, where teacher and children work together. The children should be subjected to no more restrictions than are necessary for the protection of the rights of others, and the accomplishment of the purpose of the class. The extent to which orderliness and quiet in the classroom prevail is entirely relative, depending upon the age

proper techniques, sufficient work, interesting materials on the interest and ability level of the pupils, flexibility in planning as needs arise, and attention to individual differences.

3. Materials and aids: procured in advance, easily accessible, arranged in an efficient manner.
4. Efficient management in the classroom is directly related to the excellence of the teaching techniques employed. Poor techniques can nullify the best of plans.
5. The Golden Rule for establishing good classroom management is: keep the pupils engaged in worthwhile tasks that allow for individual differences.
6. The teacher should always be ready and prepared for the next steps to be taken.
7. The teacher should be on the alert for the unexpected and able to make necessary adaptations or adjustments to a changing situation.
8. When addressing the class as a group, the teacher should secure attention before beginning to talk. Failure to do this is common among beginning student teachers. The teacher should talk to the pupils, look them in the eye, and face the class as much of the time as possible.

There are certain *intangibles* of technique which are closely related to the teacher's personality and which make methods more effective. For example, the teacher should have the ability to convey an attitude which, by voice inflection or gesture, assures the pupil of the teacher's faith in his ability to succeed. There should be that indefinable quality in the teacher's voice that lets the boy or girl know that the teacher is on "his side" and hopes that he or she will be able to answer correctly. There are many intangible qualities which sharpen the teacher's acts and make them effective. They may be native attributes to some student teachers; others will need the aid of the supervising teacher in mastering them. The importance of the intangible qualities that make techniques effective should not be overlooked.

fixed characteristics which the latter cannot adequately bring under control in the brief period of student teaching.

Self-confidence is a personality trait of the teacher which is of such importance as to deserve special attention. It is a trait which can be developed greatly during student teaching, or it can be destroyed by improper handling. An attitude of confidence arises from a sense of security. Some factors contributing to the security of the student teacher are familiarity with the classroom scene and the details of routine, explicit knowledge of what is expected of him and an understanding of his position in the classroom, knowledge of the friendly interest and backing of the supervising teacher, knowledge of all the pupils' names at sight, knowledge that the pupils like him, knowledge of his own thorough preparation, and the possession of an adequate plan for conducting the class.

Good personal relations between teacher and pupils are essential to a good learning environment. Good relations are based on mutual respect and understanding. They are primarily a result of the teacher's personality. The teacher must demonstrate that he is able, courteous, even-tempered, friendly, understanding with children, firm, fair, possessed of a desire to help, and worthy of respect. The supervising teacher can help the student teacher establish good relations with the children by demonstrating his own confidence in the student teacher and by availing himself of every opportunity to exhibit respect and friendliness. He should help the student teacher to become acquainted with the children and make opportunities for him to work with them during the period of orientation.

Good planning and thorough preparation contribute greatly to good classroom management. Some points which should constantly be kept in mind are:

1. The classroom: clean and attractive in appearance, sufficient space, good seating arrangement, good lighting and ventilation.
2. The activity: well organized with adequate plans and

of punishment may occasionally seem desirable or necessary, the teacher should be urged to use every other means possible of solving the problem before resorting to punishment of any kind.

For the pupil who is repeatedly unco-operative, the withdrawal of some special privileges might be considered. The loss of privilege should closely follow the act of disobedience, and the teacher should always be sure that the pupil fully understands the circumstances which made it necessary to withdraw a privilege. The need for and the justice of punishment can be discussed with the class on occasion. The type of privilege withdrawn should depend upon the seriousness and the frequency of the infraction of rules, and where possible, the punishment should be in some way related to the infraction.

If the pupils understand clearly what is expected of them, they will generally "come through." If the teacher will always give recognition to individual and class for their efforts to do the proper things, punishment will seldom be necessary. It is frequently wiser to praise those who co-operate than to punish those who are unco-operative. The major objective in classroom management should be the development of responsibility by the class for its own discipline and management.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Use every means to *prevent* problems from arising, rather than waiting and then attempting to *cure* them.
2. Permit pupils to act in a normal, natural manner.
3. Remember that it is necessary for pupils to "let off steam."
4. Let the boys and girls know that you have confidence in them.
5. Do not "look for trouble."
6. Provide opportunities for pupils to evaluate their behavior.
7. Help boys and girls develop self-control.
8. Maintain an effective balance of freedom and security.
9. Provide democratic classroom organization and procedure.

52. *Punishment Is Used Discriminatingly.*

Today's good teacher knows that any punishment used must be used only as it is based on and in relation to what is known about how children and youth grow and develop. The teacher today should understand quite clearly the rules and regulations of any school relative to types of punishment which may be used, but even with this understanding, the teacher needs more. It is necessary to know when to use punishment and to use it only when absolutely necessary.

It is desirable that the teacher keep in mind that children generally receive little physical punishment either at home or at school. It should further be remembered that children no longer live in a "to-be-seen-but-not-heard" atmosphere at home. These factors make teaching more difficult in some respects, and yet the long-range results of teaching are far more effective than they used to be.

Occasionally some form of punishment is necessary; however, the teacher must always be certain that the punishment is not meted out in anger, and that it has a reasonably good chance of effecting a desirable change in the behavior of the pupil. Practically all schools either forbid or frown upon physical punishment of any kind. These regulations or policies are certainly for the best interests of all concerned, for many instances can be cited in which physical punishment made a pupil all the more determined to create even more problems. The major reason, however, that this type of punishment is usually ineffectual is that one is really not treating the *cause* of the behavior problems. Again it would be similar to giving aspirin to lower the temperature, but not treating the real cause of such temperature.

Some teachers ask pupils to remain after school as punishment, and a few still require the pupil to write words or sentences a large number of times. If any real value were derived from these forms of punishment, perhaps they could be viewed with more tolerance and interest. While some forms

35. Use punishment discriminatingly.
36. Be consistent.
37. Keep the pupils engaged in worthwhile activities.
38. Act quickly to stop disorder, but weigh carefully what is happening.
39. Do not threaten or make "snap judgments."
40. Show respect for each individual.

PROBLEMS

1. Select three of your classmates for a role-playing situation in which you also have a part. Develop a problem situation in which a pupil has been insolent. Let one of your classmates be the principal, another a parent of the pupil, another the pupil, and you play the role of the teacher. Determine the action which should be followed in the situation which you develop.
2. Develop a list of factors which you feel are most important in helping to avert disciplinary problems. Use the list in evaluating yourself and the situations confronting you.
3. Discuss with a coach or with another teacher the things which really develop *esprit de corps* within a group of boys and girls. Write a brief summary of the discussion.
4. In approximately five hundred words, write your definition and theory of good classroom management or discipline.

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10. Give ample opportunities for wide participation, at various levels of ability.
11. Be cognizant of individual differences.
12. Give sufficient attention to lighting, ventilation, and room arrangement.
13. Organize classroom routine so that confusion is at a minimum.
14. Make a seating chart as soon as possible.
15. Learn the pupils' names as rapidly as possible.
16. Plan the most efficient method of distributing papers to pupils.
17. Be prompt for all classes.
18. Do not permit pupils to develop poor study habits.
19. Be sure that assignments are not so difficult that pupils become discouraged.
20. Do not take every problem to the principal.
21. Make corrections for minor things in a quiet and unobtrusive manner.
22. Let each pupil know how he is getting along.
23. Be sure that you let each boy and girl know what you expect.
24. Give credit when credit is due.
25. Look for extra or unusual performance and tell the pupil immediately.
26. Tell pupils in advance about changes which will affect them.
27. Make the best use of each person's ability.
28. Do not use sarcasm.
29. Help the pupil become the type of person he should become.
30. Strive to make pupils conscious of responsibility for "self-discipline."
31. Be confident in your teaching.
32. Be friendly but not "chummy" with pupils.
33. Be thoroughly prepared for the activities of the day.
34. Secure attention before beginning to talk to the group.

ACTION APPROACH

1. What are "pupil activities"? How are they related to the curriculum?
2. Upon what bases should activities be open to pupils? Should secret societies and those admitting pupils on secret vote of the active members be permitted in public schools? Why?
3. How may pupil participation in school activities be encouraged and controlled?
4. To what extent should the student teacher be prepared to sponsor pupil activities?
5. What are the desirable characteristics of a good sponsor of a pupil activity?
6. What constitutes a sound plan of managing the business affairs of pupil activities?
7. Upon what bases is a good club program built?
8. What is the function of the home room in the secondary-school program?
9. How can assemblies make their greatest contribution to pupils?
10. What are the functions of school publications?
11. How can pupil participation in the government of the school be made effective?

IX.

DIRECTING

PUPIL

ACTIVITIES

IN ALMOST every school there are activities outside of regular classroom instruction which have been called extracurricular activities. Commonly classed as extracurricular are such aspects of the educational program as clubs, homeroom organizations, athletics, assemblies, student government associations, student publications, dramatics, and musical organizations. Historically, the evolution of the terminology used to describe the "extra-

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THE CONSERVATIVE PLATFORM

Due to the fact that Lafayette is such a large school, we, the conservative candidates, feel that each grade should have some form of student organization. If elected, we promise to form a ninth grade committee, composed of elected members from each home-room. We will use funds from the ninth-grade treasury to hold a sock hop and skat tag party. Our secretary will keep a scrapbook of events concerning the activities of ninth graders which will be placed in the library at the end of the year. We will conduct a ninth grade assembly at least once a month with varied programs presented, among them at least one talent show and a special Christmas show. At the end of the year we will hold a program to honor those in the freshman class who made special achievements. This is the limit of our concrete program, but if elected, we will cooperate with faculty and students so as to fulfill the responsibilities of life to everyone's satisfaction.

THIS TICKET STANDS COMMITTED TO CARRY
OUT THE PROVISIONS OF THIS PLATFORM

Tom TEMPLIN for President

Gerald DENNY for Vice-President

Ethelee DAVIDSON for Secretary

Donny DUVALL for Treasurer



VOTE FOR TOM TEMPLIN for President

He is an honor roll student, and last year in addition to being elected boy of the month on the basis of scholarship won the Charles Palmer Davis award for excellence in the study of civics. Besides having served as news editor-in-chief of the Jr. Hi-Lites, he has been president of his homeroom, and was president of the Piesdome 4-H Club.

VOTE FOR GERALD DENNY for Vice-President

Gerald is an honor roll student, and treasurer of his homeroom. Last year in addition to being a member of the Lafayette Jr. Hi basketball team he was elected boy of the month on the basis of courtesy. He is president of Christian endeavor at the Broadway Christian Church. He is well-qualified and will make a fine vice-president.

HERE'S WHY

you should vote for the
CONSERVATIVE CANDIDATES

HERE'S WHY you should elect

TOM TEMPLIN
FOR
President

GERALD DENNY
FOR
Vice-President

ETHELEE DAVIDSON
FOR
Secretary

DONNY DUVALL
FOR
Treasurer

Published for your information by

THE
CONSERVATIVE CAMPAIGN COMMITTEE

Wesley Morris and Tommy Reece
Co-chairmen

VOTE FOR ETHELEE DAVIDSON for Secretary

Ethelee is secretary of her homeroom and president of the Chi Rho Fellowship at the Central Christian Church. Last year she was a Lafayette Junior Hi cheerleader and was elected girl of the month on the basis of scholarship. In addition, she won second place in a county-wide DAR essay contest.

VOTE FOR DONNY DUVALL for Treasurer

Donny an honorable mention student was the secretary of the BTU at his church during the past term. Last year he starred in the Junior Hi operetta and played on the school basketball team. He has also served in the past as president of his class. Donny is well qualified and will make a capable treasurer.

All Of These Candidates Are Well-Qualified

AND, IF ELECTED

Will Make Excellent, Active, and Capable Officers

FIGURE 4. Campaign Literature used in Election of Ninth Grade Class Officers, Lafayette School, Lexington, Kentucky. (Used by permission of Superintendent, Fayette County Schools, Lexington, Kentucky.)

curricular" program reflects the difference of opinion which has existed over the place and meaning of the activities. While *extracurricular* is one term very frequently encountered, the terms *extraclass*, *cocurricular*, *social activities*, *intercurricular*, *semicurricular*, and *collateral* have been used when referring to the activities indicated.

Perhaps the difficulty in defining the term arises from the way in which the curriculum is viewed. If the curriculum is considered to include only those activities carried on in the classroom as a regular part of the formalized instructional program, then the activities indicated would properly be classed as "extracurricular" or "extraclass." On the other hand, if the curriculum is viewed as including all the activities and experiences provided and directed by the school to achieve its objectives, then the terms *curricular* and *intercurricular* are more appropriately applied. The use of the term *pupil activities* in this volume is meant to reflect something of the evolutionary change in the thinking of many educators concerning the kinds of activities indicated—to consider them within the framework of the curriculum itself.

The excellent student of teaching understands the nature of pupil activities, the contributions they make to the realization of the objectives of the school, and the relationship they bear to other aspects of the school program. He is prepared to work in the pupil-activity program through sponsoring activities and directing the experiences of the pupils who participate.

53. *Pupil Activities Are Effective Means of Helping Meet Children's Needs.*

Pupil activities make large contributions to the fulfilling of the social, civic, and moral needs of children by providing valuable types of experiences. The activities are based on the theory of "learning by doing" rather than by "studying about doing." Through the activities program, pupils are afforded opportunities to experience the functions of citizenship here

13. Registration lists of eligible voters are prepared.
14. Official ballots are prepared.
15. Polls are supervised by proper party and class officials appointed under the class bylaws.
16. Votes are counted under proper supervision of party and class officials.

There is little doubt but that activities of the type described have definite *curricular* functions in the meeting of pupils' needs. Many times the objectives established for the various pupil activities are exemplary of highly functional types of educational outcomes. For example, one school included in the purposes of the Foreign Language Club the practical use of the language learned in the classroom, the promotion of an increased interest in the language and life of the people, and the improvement of facility in speaking the language. Probably, it would be difficult to find more worthwhile objectives for a "curricular" activity in foreign language.

In most of the schools of today the activities program makes significant educational contributions by permitting pupils to do the worthwhile things they want to do and are likely to do anyway, but for which not enough provision is made in the regular classwork.

54. *Every Pupil Should Have an Opportunity to Participate.*

Of all the people in the school, it is the boys and girls themselves who profit most from participation in the program of pupil activities. It is in this phase of the school program that pupils have additional opportunities to follow their own interests and to participate in activities they consider worthwhile. Ultimately, the goal of the program of pupil activities is to make it possible for every child to become a voluntarily active participant. This is not to say that the activities program is to be used to compensate for the neglect of pupils' needs in other areas of the school program. Moreover, the activity pro-

and now, to learn democracy by living it, to assume responsibility for behavior, to demonstrate initiative, and to carry to successful conclusion the tasks which are undertaken.

The ninth grade of Lafayette School in Lexington, Kentucky, utilizes the election of class officers as a means of realizing objectives related to the development of citizenship. Each section of the grade and every pupil in it has a part in the election. Teachers serve as guides and directors, while pupils initiate and carry forward the various activities related to the choosing of their class leaders. According to ninth grade constitutional provisions, at least two parties are formed, and slates of candidates are selected. The whole process from the declaration of a candidate to the final election is controlled and determined by definite procedures stated in the class bylaws. The entire election is based upon the legal procedure for holding elections in Kentucky, which the pupils carefully study in their regular social studies classes.

Following is a summary of the more important activities included in the project:

1. Parties are formed.
2. Slates of candidates are selected.
3. Caucuses are held.
4. Platforms based on real school and grade problems are written.
5. Campaign leaders and managers are selected.
6. Party headquarters complete with staffs are established.
7. Campaign funds are raised, expended, and accounted for through approved means.
8. Articles concerning the merits of candidates and platforms are written and published in the school paper.
9. Campaign literature is prepared and distributed (see Figure 4).
10. Party rallies are held.
11. Candidates present their slates and platforms before assemblies of the whole class.
12. Voting precincts are established.

avenues for the meeting of these needs are learning the security brought about through peer groups and other group relations, learning the security which comes through sharing, learning to find a place in various types of groups, and learning to help others to meet needs for belonging. Through participation in the activities program, pupils develop feelings of belonging to the school. Loyalties and interests become expanded until the pupils identify themselves with the work and purposes of the school as a matter of conviction, not of compulsion. Pupils with different beliefs and backgrounds are often brought together on a common basis in the same activity, with the result that the activities themselves become powerful forces of democratization, as well as important means of providing for individual needs and differences.

In light of the foregoing discussion, it must be stated that as a matter of policy the activities of the school should be open to all pupils on the same basis of membership. Probably the elementary schools have developed programs of activities more nearly abiding by the spirit of the policy than have some secondary schools. Secret societies which admit pupils by vote of the present membership exist in some public high schools. Such organizations have no place in a democratically operated school or in its program of pupil activities. When boys and girls must attend an institution on an involuntary basis, as they are required by law to do, they should not be subjected to discrimination on the basis of the whims of their peers.

On the other hand, if the conditions of membership in an activity are known to all and are the same for any interested pupil, and then he is unable to attain admittance, it is possible that some valuable experience may result. For example, the inability of an indolent pupil to attain membership in an honor society or club may teach him a valuable lesson. However, a sound program provides a variety of activities to give opportunity for participation to those pupils who cannot attain the high standards of scholastic achievement usually required for membership in honor groups.

gram is not to be looked upon merely as a way of making sure that the child has an opportunity to do something which he feels is worthwhile. Rather, the student teacher should view the activities as important aspects of the total school program because of the intrinsic values they have for pupils.

The continuous growth of children, particularly in the accelerated stages of adolescence, makes it necessary for them constantly to acquire new controls of adjustment. Moreover, problems of adjustment are often intensified by maladjustments which may have occurred in earlier years. A sound program of pupil activities provides numerous excellent opportunities for children to develop the ability to make adjustments. Intelligent observation and recognition of pupils' problems of adjustment may reveal to the student of teaching possible opportunities for the development of different activities or the suggestion of significant changes in a present program.

Recognition of the needs of children for practice in social co-operation leads to the provision of more opportunity for participation by pupils. The natural social interests and urges of boys and girls are bases upon which wholesome attitudes and worthy ideals can be developed. As pupils participate fully in group activities which are interesting and important to them, they submit themselves to the forces of social approval or disapproval and to the opinion of the group, which may have lasting and constructive effects upon their lives.

Much has been said concerning the work of the school in helping boys and girls to develop the ability to use leisure time in worthwhile ways. Citing the improper use of leisure is a totally inadequate means of realizing the objective of worthy use, unless a positive program of action is offered. The activity program offers such a plan of action because, through participating in it, pupils engage in activities which fill leisure moments in pleasant and wholesome ways.

In Principle 31 in Chapter V, it was pointed out that two of the basic needs of boys and girls are the need for security and the need for belonging. It was said that some important

Participation of pupils in school activities is advocated because learning experiences are initiated and carried through by boys and girls who have interests and needs they wish to satisfy. The attainment of significant educational goals through the activity program of the school is an application of the basic principle of building learning experiences around the interests, needs, and purposes which pupils recognize and which seem worthwhile to them.

55. A Good Activities Program Helps Pupils to Control Participation.

As indicated in Principle 54 of this chapter, it is believed that every pupil should have the opportunity to participate in some school activity, and that all boys and girls should take part in the program to some extent. Probably, one of the most difficult problems connected with pupil participation is to secure activity on the part of pupils who can and should profit by participating, but who are not interested in becoming actively engaged. Perhaps the solution lies in reaching such pupils through the guidance program and in providing a variety of activities to challenge participation. On the other hand, many pupils who are interested, capable, and enthusiastic tend to overparticipate in school activities. Instances have been reported of boys and girls participating in as many as ten or more activities, including interscholastic teams, major publications, school committees, and clubs. In some cases teachers are often to blame for the overparticipation of capable pupils. It is easy for a teacher who shoulders responsibility for the success of an activity to solicit the participation of a pupil who is interested, who is able to perform well, and who exerts initiative. Many times such boys and girls are those who are already expending too much time and energy on pupil activities in relation to their total school experiences.

A sound program of school activities helps pupils to strike a good balance between the two extremes of participating too

Denying the use of school facilities to secret societies or refusing to permit them to organize and operate within the school program are inadequate ways of meeting the problem. Equally ineffective is the practice of declaring members of such organizations ineligible for school office. Such practice merely encourages the immorality that is perjury and gives those concerned the questionable but appealing status of being members, if not martyrs, of persecuted "underground" organizations. A much more effective means of solution lies in developing a live program of pupil activities filled with variety and attractive social activity open to all pupils. When this is done, and when pupils have been given the opportunity to understand and to discuss openly the operation of secret societies, boys and girls are likely to see little use in going to the trouble to form and to join such organizations.

Some teachers and administrators, who recognize the popularity of pupil activities and the energy and time pupils spend on them, are concerned lest participation in the activities have a deleterious effect upon scholarship. In their preoccupation with subjects rather than pupils, the persons indicated insist upon requiring a pupil to maintain a "passing grade" or a "C average" in academic subjects before he is permitted to participate in school activities. The theory is that such requirement tends to focus the pupil's attention on his academic work and improve the quality of it because of the motivation of finally being able to do what he really wants to do and what seems to him worthwhile. Practice has failed in many ways to bear out the theory, because desirable results have not generally developed from the standpoint of pupil interest in academic work. Moreover, to the extent it has succeeded in stimulating greater pupil effort academically, the practice has encouraged the teachers to give insufficient attention to an outmoded curriculum. As a matter of fact, studies indicate generally that participation in the program of pupil activities results in stimulating scholarship and that no harmful effect is discernible.

estly searching for a satisfactory solution to this difficult problem. Types of awards vary from inexpensive letters or badges to expensive sweaters, blankets, or watches, and include recognition ceremonies, certificates, and membership in special organizations such as honor clubs. There is an apparent trend away from expensive awards and toward simple recognition of outstanding achievement and service.

The point system is one of the principal methods of controlling and encouraging participation in activities which has found wide application, particularly in the secondary schools. The plan usually provides for the assignment of a number of points to each activity. For example: president of the student body, twelve points; captain of an interscholastic team, twelve points; class president, ten points; club officer, eight points; club member, four points. The allocation of points on an equitable basis is one of the biggest problems in developing a point system. Variations among activities make it difficult to assign points in proportion to the amount of time and responsibility involved. For example: some activities such as ice hockey are seasonal; others are primarily honorary; some are intellectual, while others are physical; and some are always in the general public notice, while others are inconspicuous. Usually a maximum number of points that may be earned by a pupil at any one time is established. Limitation of participation would, of course, be the effect of such a practice. On the other hand, some schools require a minimum number of points to be amassed by a pupil before he is permitted to graduate. The purpose of such a requirement is to stimulate pupils to participate in the program of activities. This latter arrangement produces an effect almost identical to the plan of granting credit for participation in activities. In other words, the requirement of a certain amount of credit for graduation tends to have a stimulating effect on pupil participation similar to the motivation of requiring a minimum number of points.

The "major-minor" plan of preventing excessive participation and of equalizing opportunities for all pupils to take part is

much and too little. The participation of each pupil should lead toward the realization of several educational goals by being varied and extensive enough to make such growth possible. Ideally, the activities program attracts the interest and stimulates the enthusiasm of every boy and girl. Certainly the ideal is not totally achieved in all schools, and various schemes of encouraging and controlling pupil participation are practiced.

One of the oldest and perhaps most common methods of controlling pupil participation in school activities is the requirement that a pupil be doing "passing" work. As pointed out in Principle 54 of this chapter, scholarship requirements tend to reduce the percentage of the student body which receives the benefits and values of participation in school activities. While it may be argued that belonging to interscholastic teams and holding offices in school organizations may well be limited by scholastic requirements, the method, in the main, does little to encourage or to guide pupil participation. Basically, the method serves to prevent many pupils from having perhaps what is for them the most valuable kind of experience which the school has to offer.

In many schools the arrangement of the schedule of pupil activities naturally limits participation. For example, a period of time may be set aside during the school day or after school during which all club meetings are to be held. In other schools there is an activity period in the regular school day during which all pupil activities except perhaps athletics are held. By staggering a series of activities and meetings throughout the week or month, variety is obtained in the program. Such an arrangement automatically limits the participation of pupils to the number of activities scheduled at different times.

The offering of awards to pupils as incentives or rewards for participation in activities has been defended and condemned. Awards have been defended as stimulants to increased participation and condemned as false motivation. While no unanimity of opinion appears to exist, most schools are striving for a middle ground between the extremes indicated and are hon-

ences in the activity program as well as those academic matters usually included.

It seems apparent that it is becoming more and more desirable for the pupil-activity program to assist pupils in controlling their participation in the various activities. Control is desirable especially from the standpoint of helping pupils maintain a reasonable balance of participation in all types of school activities. In addition, pupils need help in selecting activities in relation to personal needs and in protecting themselves against too heavy a load.

56. *The Leadership of the Sponsor Determines the Excellence of an Activity.*

The pupil-activity program will have educational value and meet pupils' needs when each activity is well organized and directed. Intelligent sponsorship is the most fundamental element in the success of an activity. In fact, the success or failure of the whole activity program depends in large measure upon the quality of leadership exerted by the sponsors of the various activities. Sponsors stand in the same relationship to pupil activities as teachers do with respect to teaching-learning situations. The relationship imposes responsibilities for developing a program to meet the needs of the pupils, providing appropriate learning experiences and activities, guiding and directing the learning of the boys and girls, and encouraging and promoting initiative and leadership.

The nature of the sponsorship determines in large measure whether or not a school organization is a pupil activity or merely another formal class. The sponsor of an activity stands in an advisory, rather than a dictatorial, relationship to the boys and girls being supervised. The values of activities are lost to pupils under sponsorship of the dictatorial type. The wise sponsor does not dominate the activity under his supervision. Domination prevents pupils from working co-operatively and independently to realize their own purposes through

based upon the classification of each school activity or office as a major or minor activity. The participation of each pupil at any time is then limited to a predetermined number of major and/or minor activities, for instance, to two majors, to a major and two minors, or to four minors. In some schools, in order to secure widespread participation, pupils are required to participate on an established level.

The last method of controlling minimum and maximum pupil participation in school activities to be presented here is the guidance or contract plan. Those who oppose the more "mechanical" methods presented earlier believe that it is not wise to attempt to meet the needs of all pupils by fitting them into the same mold; that it is not advisable to force some pupils to participate in activities, especially certain ones; and that some boys and girls may safely participate in more activities than other pupils. Thus, it is urged that the participation of pupils in activities be a matter of guidance and counseling, rather than of mechanical control.

The operation of the guidance plan is based upon the principle that pupils should be assisted to make wise decisions about participating in activities. To do this, adequate information about the program must be furnished to the pupils. Some of the more common means of informing pupils about the program of activities include home-room and assembly programs, articles in the school paper and student handbook, information published in special activities bulletins, and conferences with teachers and sponsors of organizations.

A second phase of the guidance plan is concerned with the pupil's individual program of schoolwork. The work program and load of each pupil is planned in terms of his particular needs for participation in all types of school activities. In a live program of guidance, the discussion of participation in activities is an integral part of the individual and group guidance programs of the school. In other words, under the guidance method, educational planning is broadened to include experi-

5. Ability to get along well with people.
6. Awareness of problems of social living.
7. Desire to associate with boys and girls.
8. Adaptability in being able to change carefully made plans as needs arise.
9. Ability to guide without domineering.
10. Possession of a sense of humor.
11. Possession of ability and/or training in the area of at least one activity.
12. Acceptance of all boys and girls regardless of personal attractiveness or social position.
13. Understanding and appreciation of the needs and problems of pupils.
14. Resourcefulness and interest in exploring new and different fields and problems.
15. Ability to derive satisfaction in pupil accomplishment, rather than from results of one's own efforts.

The alert student of teaching seizes every opportunity to become proficient in the area of pupil activities. He takes advantage of opportunities to acquire practical knowledge through participation in the activity programs of schools, colleges, and community organizations. He observes many activities in operation and perhaps arranges to serve as an assistant sponsor in at least one activity during the period of his professional training. In addition, he learns the characteristics and behavioral patterns of children of the developmental level on which he plans to work. He learns what they are like, how they react in various situations, what they like to do, and what problems commonly occur in their behavior and adjustment. Adequate preparation along the lines indicated results in the type of sponsorship most likely to produce successful activities.

57. *Business Affairs Must Be Properly Managed.*

In view of the educational values attributed to school activities by most educators, boards of education are justified in providing financial support for the program. Despite the truth

pursuing common interests. The role of the sponsor is one of co-operative supervisor, helpful counselor, and interested friend to the membership of an organization. The sponsor helps pupils determine what they wish to do, choose the means of accomplishing their purposes, use ideas, techniques, and information he can supply, and evaluate the worth of what they have done. In all of this, it is easy for him to make the mistake of assuming too much of the responsibility for initiation of the events and of performing too many of the actual activities. By accepting pupils as they are and beginning with them where they are in their leadership to each other, to him, and to the activity, the good sponsor is able to influence the attitudes and to condition the behavior of boys and girls favorably without undue coercion or influence. Insofar as possible, the wise sponsor leaves in the hands of the pupils the planning and conducting of the program of an activity.

In the selection of new teachers, administrators are giving increased attention to the ability and willingness of applicants to assume responsibilities in the pupil activity program. Obviously, it is important for students of teaching to consider fitness for sponsorship as a part of professional preparation. All student teachers do not make good sponsors of pupil activities because some are domineering, lax, uninterested, or overly zealous in giving supervision and direction, to the point of devoting too much time and energy to the activity program. Good sponsors have definite characteristics which are regarded by administrators in assigning sponsorship duties. While the following list is not all-inclusive, it is indicative of the attributes of a good sponsor:

1. Vitality in guiding and directing the activities of boys and girls.
2. Enthusiasm and ability to create enthusiasm for others' own interests.
3. Tact in associating with boys and girls to prevent familiarity, but to maintain their confidence and respect.
4. Interest in many things.

excellent learning experiences. A plan found to be very satisfactory in many schools is to have the supervision of the financial affairs of the activity program under the control of a committee composed of pupils and teachers. Particularly is the committee desirable when centralized financing of all activities is practiced. The general function of the committee is to guide and direct the financial aspects of the activity program. More specifically, it assists in preparing budgets, helps to secure funds for some needy nonrevenue producing activities, supervises the operation of accounting procedures, and secures economical expenditure of funds.

The centralized plan of controlling all financial affairs of school activities is the practice commonly recognized to be superior to other methods. The center of control under the plan is the school treasurer. He may be the principal, a person in the principal's office, or a teacher, but regardless of his position, he should be adequately bonded. He receives all money collected by any organization, keeps all financial records, writes all checks, and makes regular reports regarding the status of each organization. His accounts should be audited regularly and be available for inspection by anyone. Audits may be published in the school paper and posted on the school bulletin board.

Separate accounts are kept for each organization, and all money received by any activity is deposited with the central treasurer, who issues proper receipts. It is good practice for any person, whether pupil or teacher, who receives money from another to issue a receipt in duplicate and to retain one copy in his possession. Moreover, if teachers are involved in collecting money they should be bonded.

All transactions should be recorded in records that can be audited. An expenditure is made by the central treasurer only upon the presentation of a requisition properly signed by the sponsor or another person duly authorized by the organization. Disbursement of funds is made only by check, and a transaction through the central accounting office is not complete until the

of the foregoing statement, the support of the activity program is not usually provided through regular school funds. While it is true that the payment of sponsors and other instructional personnel, the furnishing of some equipment, and the provision of a meeting place are provided by the board of education, the remainder of the program in most schools is financed through funds raised by pupils. Fees, dues, fund-raising activities, admission charges, subscriptions, and contributions in the form of advertisements, courtesy notices, and lists of sponsoring business firms comprise the principal means through which funds are raised.

Recent trends in many schools toward charging relatively high admission fees discriminate against boys and girls whose family incomes are in the low brackets. Pupils must not be prevented from participating in activities because of their inability to pay the cost. Indigent pupils are often prevented from participating in activities because they are not financially able, and in some cases they drop out of school rather than face the situation. No school which trains for democratic citizenship and believes in equal educational opportunity will permit such situations to exist. Good pupil-activity programs make provision for indigent pupils to participate when the cost is prohibitive for them. The statement does not mean to imply that poor attitudes and bad habits are created by giving support to such boys and girls. In the first place, most, if not all, indigent pupils are rightfully proud and will not accept charity. In the second place, there is usually much honorable work to be done in connection with most activities. Sound programs provide opportunities for needy pupils to earn the means of their participation without loss of pride, status, or self-respect.

Most school organizations and activities receive and expend revenue. Actually, the range in revenue will be from a few dollars in small schools to thousands of dollars in large schools. In a sound program, the school exercises supervision of the funds through procedures which protect the reputations of the sponsors and the pupils and, at the same time, furnish

after year. A live program rids itself of activities which have ceased to perform a vital function and creates new organizations to meet changing needs. Clubs, for instance, which are barely active and obviously no longer meet real needs should be disbanded and new ones organized in light of present interests and needs. To illustrate, if the building of a municipal swimming pool near the school creates interest in swimming on the part of many pupils, there is probably little justification for not forming a Swimming Club, even if other clubs such as the Ping-pong Club or the Badminton Club disappear from the activity program. Perhaps the change would only need to be a temporary one, but even if it proved to be permanent, it would seem justifiable in light of continued demonstrable interests and needs. Without the constant change of healthy growth, the activity program becomes inert and is kept alive only at the expense of unfulfilled pupil needs and through the expenditure of wasted energy.

There is no universal pattern of school activities or plan of organizing and conducting them which will meet the needs of the boys and girls in all schools. The size of the school or of the program of activities is not the important element to be considered. The most important factor is that the activities program be based upon the interests and needs of the pupils in the school. Such a program can hardly become uniform or standardized in the sense that it is organized in the same way that the programs of other schools are operated and conducted. Probably, standardization in the sense indicated is the one factor most to be avoided. Moreover, the kind of program indicated is developed co-operatively by pupils and teachers, with a large measure of the initiative and responsibility assumed by the boys and girls. It cannot be developed by the principal or the teachers and handed ready made to the pupils of the school, because such a procedure would defeat the real purposes to be achieved through the program itself.

As indicated, the nature and scope of activities programs differ so widely from school to school that it is difficult to

canceled check is filed with the requisition or invoice for payment.

The budgeting of activity funds represents good management and provides pupils with valuable learning experiences. Good practice requires each activity to prepare an itemized budget each year and to abide by its restrictions. However, in schools in which activity fees are paid or general grants are made by the board of education, an all-school activities budget is prepared. The activity committee or student council is usually responsible for preparing the all-school budget and receives requests from the various organizations for portions of the fund. When the requests are approved, budgets are prepared and submitted to the central treasurer who charges each disbursement against the amounts allocated to the different organizations. Requests for additional funds are granted, modified, or rejected by the budget committee. Unused funds remaining in the account of any organization at the close of the year revert to the general fund.

The proper management of the business affairs of pupil activities removes temptation from all persons involved and protects them, as well as the school, from the dangers of mismanagement and resultant unfavorable criticism. In addition, valuable learning experiences are provided pupils by way of development of moral values, awareness of responsibility, and knowledge of good business procedures.

58. *The Pattern of the Activity Program Is Determined by the Needs to Be Met.*

It is difficult, if not impossible, to find a uniform or typical pattern of pupil activities among the schools of the country. The fact that there are wide variations in the way in which the activity program is organized and managed in different schools poses no profound problem. There is no reason why two schools should have the same activities or, for that matter, why a school should strive to maintain the same activities year

down to the pupils. Rather, it should grow out of their recognized needs and interests and be developed in terms of their requests. Periodic evaluation of the club program contributes to its maximum effectiveness and stimulates both pupils and sponsors to keep it vitally alive.

The student of teaching may wonder at the inclusion of the home room in a discussion of pupil activities. Actually, the home room is a means of administering the school and of accounting for and guiding pupils, rather than a pupil activity as such. On the other hand, to omit home rooms from the discussion of activities would leave a gap in the presentation, because of the close relationship of the home room to the operation of the activity program.

In the high school, home-room groups are formed usually on grade levels for every twenty-five to fifty pupils. While the home room may serve a variety of purposes, its greatest contributions to the functioning of the school program are in administration, guidance, and pupil activities. In many schools, the home room is actually the center of school activities. The function may be achieved through promoting the home-room program and by contributing to the all-school program of activities. For example, many all-school events are planned and conducted on a home-room basis, or home-room discussion may be undertaken of the kinds of clubs existent in the school, their value, and how to participate in them. Sometimes administrative matters pertaining to pupil activities, such as making announcements, directing drives, and conducting various kinds of elections, center in the home room. In addition, the home room may conduct its own program of activities, including entertainments, socials, and parties to which other home rooms and groups may be invited on occasion.

In most schools the home room is the basis for pupil participation in the operation and control of the school. In addition to having an internal organization for the conducting of its own affairs, each home room usually has a representative on the student council. Members represent their home rooms in

analyze satisfactorily for the student teacher the current practice on either the elementary or the secondary level. Activities are very rapidly becoming a part of school programs, particularly in the elementary schools. A variety of activities including assemblies, student councils, clubs, athletic organizations, homeroom and class organizations, and publications have become accepted learning experiences for elementary and secondary school children.

While the designation and classification of pupil activities probably does not matter to the student of teaching, he is interested in forming some concept of the nature and extent of the activities for instructional purposes. Accordingly, some of the more important activities usually found in school programs are briefly described in the paragraphs which follow.

The diversity exhibited in the club programs of schools is testimony to the popularity of school clubs with the boys and girls. In many schools the popularity of clubs is exceeded only by athletic activities. Clubs are organized for many different purposes. Some are academic in nature and include organizations such as the Science Club, the Mathematics Club, the History Club, the Safety Club, the Art Club, the Dramatics Club, the French Club, and the 4-H Club. Other clubs are organized around hobbies, including dancing, hiking, stamp collecting, and travel. Sometimes the development of civic and social responsibilities is the motive for organizing units, including Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Hi-Y, Girl Reserves, and Campfire Girls. Still other clubs are based upon special interests such as radio, nature study, or astronomy. Clubs are among the most versatile kinds of pupil activities; they offer opportunities for pupils to pursue common interests and to explore new ones. They give pupils opportunity for self-expression and provide experiences in exercising initiative and in learning how to work and associate with others in social situations.

A successful club program is based upon the needs and interests of boys and girls, as well as their previous experiences. Certainly, the club program should not be handed from the top

are encouraged to participate extensively in assembly programs through the work of a committee on assemblies. Opportunities are provided for pupils to preside at assemblies, plan and conduct the programs, supervise the seating and conduct of the student body, and evaluate the whole program of school assemblies in terms of criteria developed under the auspices of the assembly committee. In planning for pupil participation in assemblies, the committee usually arranges for various areas of the school program to become active. For example, clubs and classes may hold debates and symposiums on important problems and issues of the day, conduct demonstrations, and present programs appropriate for special days and occasions such as Christmas, Thanksgiving, and American Education Week.

Teacher participation in the school assembly has an important place, especially since it gives pupils the opportunity to see their teachers in roles different from those usually observed. When a teacher takes an unusual trip, develops an interesting hobby, or is willing to join other teachers in discussing an important problem, the pupils will profit materially if they can share the experience through the school assembly.

Efforts are often made to broaden the program of assemblies through bringing to the school excellent programs from other schools and organizations and through the performance of professional talent. The provision of professional entertainment may have considerable merit especially if the school is located in such a way as to make attendance at cultural events difficult and unlikely. It is necessary to exercise care in selecting the events to insure a balanced experience. Moreover, the cost of the programs may be prohibitive for many pupils who may need them most. Certainly, it is questionable to follow the practice of some schools of charging pupils admission and sending to a study room or playroom those who cannot afford to pay or who are unwilling to attend.

The school assembly affords the pupil an opportunity to realize the nature and scope of the activities of his school, to understand and accept the common ideals of the school and

the deliberations of the council and conduct appropriate business of the council in the different rooms. Through the opportunities for conducting and managing their own affairs pupils profit from valuable experiences in learning to exercise initiative, assume responsibility, and live and work together.

Many persons in the field of guidance consider the home-room almost indispensable to the successful functioning of the guidance program in the school. As pointed out in Chapter IV, guidance is effective only when it functions in the lives of boys and girls. It is functional when it helps pupils solve their problems and is related to the daily activities and experiences of boys and girls. Through guidance the teacher may be able to help the pupils arrange a program of activities and experiences which will be both interesting and worthwhile. Certainly, the alert beginning teacher will utilize the opportunities provided through the home room for group and individual guidance regarding the nature and value of the various activities. The exercise of guidance in connection with the selection of activities helps to direct the participation of pupils in those endeavors best fitted to their individual needs and interests. Moreover, the work of the home-room teacher along the lines indicated contributes materially to the success of the activities program.

Probably one of the oldest of school activities is the assembly which has become an educational and recreational feature of most school programs. Certainly it is an important part of the program of school activities and is held in almost every school either periodically or at irregular intervals.

Many worthwhile claims have been made for the school assembly. Important among the purposes stated for assemblies are that they: cultivate school spirit, unify the work and life of the school, promote school and community relations, create appreciations, develop leadership abilities, widen and deepen interests, and encourage worthy use of leisure time.

Perhaps the greatest contributions of assemblies are realized when pupils plan and conduct them. In many schools, pupils

trained persons other than the classroom teachers. Interscholastic athletic events are generally not considered to represent good practice on the elementary level, although some elementary schools participate in contests, which usually include baseball, basketball, or track activities. While intramural athletic activities are usually restricted to fourth graders and the pupils above that level, intramurals are being introduced in the lower grades with increasing frequency. A very desirable activity which is practiced by some schools is the play day. On that day pupils and even adults from several schools and the community come together to play games and to participate in athletic and recreational activities. It is entirely possible that such events will become increasingly popular.

It would be difficult to find an American high school without some program of athletics, especially the interscholastic type. Intramural programs, however, are organized in many schools, usually around the enrollment in the different grades; however, home rooms and physical education classes are also sometimes used as the bases of organization. Probably competitive group activity and individualized participation should both be fostered through the intramural program. Truly, a live program of intramural athletic activities offers excellent opportunities to increase the amount and extent of pupil participation in games and sports.

In many secondary schools the values which should be realized from interscholastic athletics are being lost because of the emphasis placed upon winning. The training of a few pupils in a sport rather than many, the paying of high salaries only to coaches instead of raising the wages of all the staff, and the building of costly facilities and the purchasing of expensive equipment for athletics to the detriment of other needy areas of the school program—all combine to mark high school sports with the taint of "commercialism" and "big business." It is little wonder that some educators contend that the American high school has gone into the entertainment business. Certainly such tendencies ought to be reduced, and emphasis

community, to develop school loyalty and spirit, to understand his relationship to others, to benefit from purposeful group activity and united effort, and to learn the duties and responsibilities of good citizenship.

One of the oldest kinds of pupil activities is athletics. The athletic program of the modern school is often the best known and most publicized aspect of the whole school. Athletics have been condemned and praised, argued over and written about, discussed and criticized perhaps more than any other activity in the school program. The interest of persons within and without the school in athletics is so keen that coaches and sponsors of athletic teams and activities have been paid more than other teachers and dismissed for failure to win or succeed as well as had been expected. Sometimes the pressure of interest and opinion has been great enough to cause school administrators to lose their jobs because of their attitudes toward athletics or because of the failure of their athletic programs to include winning contests. The present discussion touches only upon the important aspects of the athletic program and the many problems connected with it.

In the elementary school physical activity centers around programs of instruction and supervised play, with perhaps some relief periods introduced for purposes of recreation and relaxation. The teaching of skills is related closely to the instructional program, with supervised play occurring before and after school and during relief or "change of activity" periods. Plenty of playground space and proper equipment provide opportunities for children to engage in supervised free-play and to practice the skills developed in the instructional program. Adequate provision for teaching skills in most sections of the country requires gymnasium facilities.

A good elementary program includes a variety of games and activities including baseball, basketball, folk dancing, dodge ball, volleyball, and formal drills. The better programs exhibit a trend away from unsupervised play at noon or after school and toward supervision of play periods, often by especially

the school magazine. However, in some schools the newspaper has replaced the magazine, and in such instances the paper may carry creative writing on occasion. Some school papers circumvent the problem by issuing a literary supplement at regular intervals. In addition to informing the pupils and patrons of the school news, the paper is used by many schools as a potent medium for interpreting the schools to the public. Thus, the paper in describing and interpreting the needs and accomplishments of the total school program may become a constructive force for better schools in the community. These values and those which accrue to the pupils who participate in the preparation and production of the newspaper make it an educational activity of considerable merit.

Probably the school yearbook or annual, which is found almost exclusively in high schools, is the most controversial of school publications. The principal objection to the yearbook is its high cost and the tremendous expenditure of time and energy by pupils and teachers to produce it. Some schools have attempted to solve the problem by issuing a special senior rotogravure edition of the school newspaper, containing photographs of the seniors, personal sketches, historical reports, and other material pertaining to the senior class and the graduates. Actually, the yearbook is a history of a class for four years or of the school for an academic year, and the activity of those pupils who produce such a volume results in many worthwhile experiences. The use of standard covers and of the process of lithographing have aided some schools to reduce the cost of the yearbook and thus to continue a school publication prized by many graduates as a souvenir or memoir of their school days.

The magazine is perhaps the oldest type of school publication. It is designed to provide for the creative literary efforts of the pupils. Sometimes the efforts to make the magazine an inclusive publication carrying news, announcements of coming events, and information for pupil guidance have resulted in its failure to survive. Except in large schools the magazine is not

placed instead on the values of athletics for the pupils who participate in them. Actually, the justification of the athletic program rests upon the value of the activities for those who take part. In other words, the success of the program of athletics must be based more and more upon its contribution to the participants and other pupils of the school and less and less upon the number of contests won and the amount of money raised.

School publications are an acceptable part of the life and activity of the student bodies of most, if not all, of the schools of the country. Outstanding among the types of publications are the school paper, yearbook, magazine, and handbook. School publications make many valuable contributions to the life of the school and the community. Important among the principal functions served by the publications are those of presenting news about the school, informing pupils of school activities, acquainting the community with the accomplishments and problems of the school, building school morale and spirit, unifying the school, and developing pupil initiative and responsibility.

The school newspaper is the most common pupil publication. It is probably the one which provides the most comprehensive and varied educational experience for the pupils involved in the activities of school publications. School newspapers exhibit a wide range of characteristics, from a printed daily paper which approximates commercial standards, to an irregular publication prepared by the members of a class or group and produced in manuscript form. Between the extremes indicated are many variations, including mimeographed editions, columns of school news in commercial newspapers, and, in the lower grades, the "paper" which is "told" by the class or written on the blackboard or a chart. Most secondary schools which publish papers issue them weekly, bimonthly, or monthly.

As its name suggests, the newspaper is primarily concerned with news. Essays, short stories, and poems properly belong in

cause the benefits which advertisers may expect to receive are similar to those resulting from advertising through commercial channels. On the other hand, the soliciting of advertising for the yearbook, handbook, and probably the magazine is not legitimate because advertisers may not reasonably expect benefits comparable to those resulting from advertisements placed in the school paper. Consequently, the payment for an advertisement in a yearbook, a handbook, or perhaps a magazine is properly considered to be a mere donation. The soliciting of such advertising constitutes little more than begging in the name of the school.

As indicated, it is questionable to finance publications through these practices by the participation of pupils in all kinds of money-making activities unrelated to the business of producing a particular publication. Perhaps the most satisfactory solution to the problem is to secure the necessary funds from revenue provided by the board of education. Facing the failure to receive such support, some schools have resorted—as was stated earlier—to the plan of levying a general fee for all school activities and making allotments to the various activities through a central committee.

In schools in which there are several sections of a class or grade, class-wide or grade-wide organizations are sometimes included as phases of the activities program. In some schools, however, class organizations merely serve purposes similar to the home room. Especially is this true in the smaller schools, which may have only one section of a class or grade, while in the larger ones, the effectiveness of class organizations is offset by the size of the enrollment. In still other schools, only the upper grades or classes are permitted to organize. The amount of activity to be performed on a class-wide or grade-wide basis is probably the factor which should determine the advisability of class organization. If there are many social activities to be held or many problems related to events, class or grade organization may be valuable. On the other hand, if there is a minimum of activity, the need for class organization may be limited,

published more often than monthly and in some cases less frequently. Difficulties of finance pose some of the biggest problems usually encountered in the production of the magazine.

One of the newest of school publications is the handbook, which is designed to give new pupils necessary information about the school and to assist them in becoming oriented and adjusted to their new environment. Handbooks usually contain information about school activities, regulations, procedures, traditions, graduation requirements, programs of study, and related material of value to pupils and parents in learning to get acquainted with, and to understand, the school. It is highly desirable that a handbook be written by the pupils rather than the faculty or the principal because of the values involved for those who participate in the preparation and because the language and expression is more likely to appeal to other boys and girls. Handbooks are traditionally difficult to finance, and the usual method of paying for them is to charge each pupil for a copy. The practice, however, can easily defeat the real purpose of the publication unless means are utilized for seeing that each pupil receives a copy regardless of whether or not he is able to pay for it.

Printed programs for different school events are many times overlooked by schools as publications of great value. The programs for athletic contests, commencement ceremonies, musical and dramatic presentations, assemblies, and school entertainments of all kinds offer invaluable opportunities to interpret various phases of the school program. In addition to presenting the details of the special event, it is easy to include in the program information about the activities and work of the school which will increase patrons' understanding of its purposes, needs, and accomplishments.

Difficulties of finance probably are the biggest problems confronting all student publications. Ordinarily, the newspaper is financed through subscriptions and advertising. It is considered proper to solicit advertising for the school paper be-

many additional functions listed for the student council are: to provide pupils with the opportunity to participate in the making of policies which affect them, to permit pupils to manage their own activities, to develop wholesome pupil-teacher relationships, and to promote the welfare of the school.

The organization of student councils has received a great amount of study through the years and many patterns of organization have emerged. The goal of any plan is to give each pupil the opportunity to have a voice in the management and control of the school. Actually, pupils need to learn that many voices besides their own desire to be heard and that some means must be employed to give all a chance for expression. A desirable type of organization provides for representation of all pupils, but remains as simple in structure as is commensurate with efficiency of operation. Councils composed of representatives from home rooms or other functioning divisions of the student body are effective in that members are in constant two-way communication with their parent bodies. In very large schools such a plan may result in the council being too big to be an efficient working body. In such instances the committee plan of operation is suggested as a means of overcoming the obstacle of size. Some councils have patterned their organization after governmental agencies, with the result that many times efficiency is impaired because of overcomplication and lack of relationship of subdivisions to the specific functions to be performed. It is better to let the pupils be realistic rather than to create an atmosphere of make-believe.

Councils are usually authorized to participate in making school policy regarding such matters as the general code of conduct of the school, the standards of conduct and behavior of pupils, and the morale of the school. The powers, duties, and responsibilities of the council should be clearly understood, defined, and written into a constitution and set of bylaws. These documents usually deal with such aspects of the council as name, purpose, membership, power and authority, organization, duties of officers, meetings, committees, and means of

because the same kinds of learning may be gained in other activities. One of the problems usually encountered in large classes or grades is that of securing widespread participation among the members of the group. Too often the membership elects its officers and feels that it is then the responsibility of the latter to conduct all business and activities involving the class. A way of combating such a situation is to prepare an agenda of activities and events at the beginning of the term and then to appoint a number of committees to conduct the necessary business. Participation is increased by including as many members of the group on the committees as efficiency of operation will justify.

The position has been taken in this volume that the chief function of education is to produce effectively functioning members of a society. In the United States, then, the schools, in order to fulfill their duty, must strive to develop well-informed, active, democratic citizens. Democratic citizenship is learned through the active participation of the learner, in the same way that reading, writing, or arithmetic is learned. Pupil participation in school management and control should be an important experience in democratic living and citizenship.

The student council is the physical expression of the machinery and organization established in many schools for pupil participation in the government of the school. While the council has appeared in many more secondary than elementary schools, the student of teaching is misled to believe that the organization is properly regarded as a high school activity. Certainly the council is as valuable a phase of the life and program of the elementary school as it is of the high school, and efforts should be directed toward greater emphasis on both levels.

As indicated above, the primary purpose and function of the student council is to develop democratic citizenship. Many other purposes (*see Selected References*) have been ascribed to the council, but they are all secondary to the central one outlined in the foregoing statement. Important among the

ACTION POINTERS

1. View the curriculum as including all the activities provided and directed by the school to achieve its objectives.
2. See that every child has an opportunity to become a voluntarily active participant in a "noncurricular" activity which he considers worthwhile.
3. Open all activities to all pupils on the same basis. Remember that election to membership by secret ballot has no place in activities of public schools.
4. Evaluate carefully the means employed to encourage and control pupil participation in activities.
5. Be prepared by training and experience to sponsor some type of pupil activity.
6. Work with your colleagues and the administrators of the school toward the financing of the activity program by the board of control.
7. Do not permit pupils to be excluded from participating in activities solely because they are unable to pay the cost.
8. Require the issuance of a receipt by any person who receives money from another.
9. Insist on being bonded if you are involved in collecting money.
10. Strive to maintain the same activity another year only if it continues to provide for pupils' needs and interests.
11. Be prepared to direct the activities of a home room if you are working on the secondary level.
12. Understand the guidance function of the home room.
13. Use the home-room period to help pupils with the problems they have in common and as individuals.
14. Resolve not to make the home room a study hall.
15. Include pupils in the planning of home-room activities and in implementing the plans.
16. Involve pupils in planning and conducting assembly programs.
17. Introduce variety into the play periods of pupils.

amending the constitution and bylaws. The authority granted to the council should not be usurped by the sponsor. A sponsor who dominates a student council and prevents it from operating under the power and authority properly delegated to it will likely fail. Such practice results in insincere and cynical attitudes on the part of pupils toward their council because of the pretense with which it operates.

Pupil participation in school management and control needs to be defined with regard to policy-making and administrative responsibility. Although student courts operating under the student council have proved to be successful in some schools, it is doubtful whether the council should undertake the responsibility of becoming the primary disciplinary agency of the school. The student courts which have been effective attempt to deal only with those general rules imposed upon pupils by themselves or adopted by them in their own interests. While the student council may make rules, formulate and adopt policies, or have a part in performing such tasks, the use of pupils as policemen to enforce regulations ordinarily is not practicable. The best practice limits pupil participation in matters of discipline to policy-making, rather than to judicial functions. When it is properly defined and directed, pupil participation in school management and control makes valuable contributions to the uplifting of the morale of the school, to the development of respect for the rights and privileges of others, and to the assumption of responsibility in a democratic organization.

It is fundamentally important for the beginning teacher to view the program of pupil activities as an outgrowth of the life of the school. Effective activities are always based upon jobs to be done, needs to be met, interests to be served, and services to be performed. The leadership of the beginning teacher in the activities program is most dynamic when he sees that all pupils under his direction have an opportunity to participate in activities which seem worthwhile to them, and when he guides them into well-balanced programs of total school activity.

9. Characterize the publications existing in your school. Evaluate them in terms of your concepts of what good publications should be.
10. Analyze the plan of financing publications in your school.
11. Analyze the machinery and organization established in the school in which you are teaching for pupil participation in the government of the school.

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18. Be prepared to guide and direct the recreational activities of pupils.
19. Involve pupils in the planning and conducting of recreational periods.
20. Capitalize upon school publications as media for interpreting and describing the total school program to the community.
21. Limit the soliciting of advertising to those school publications offering benefits to advertisers similar to those they may expect to receive from advertising through commercial channels.
22. Direct pupil participation in school government toward the goal of giving each pupil the opportunity to have a voice in the management and control of the school.
23. Define pupil participation in school management and control in terms of policy-making and administrative responsibility.
24. Limit pupil participation in matters of discipline to policy-making, rather than judicial functions.

PROBLEMS

1. Outline ways in which pupil activities meet pupils' needs.
2. List ways in which you may encourage pupils to participate in school activities.
3. Outline the means by which participation of pupils in school activities may be wholesomely encouraged and controlled.
4. Analyze the role of the sponsor of a pupil activity.
5. Observe a good sponsor of an activity as he works with the boys and girls. List the characteristics and attributes which make him successful.
6. Analyze the plan of managing the business affairs of the pupil-activity program in your school.
7. Outline the primary functions of the home room.
8. Make plans covering a semester for conducting a home room on the secondary level in which you are working.

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tion is made difficult, in part at least, by the effect of tradition upon teachers. The nature and scope of evaluation have heretofore been limited to the confines of a narrow curriculum designed to prescribe information which pupils memorized. Such a narrow conception of evaluation cannot cope with the complexities of a modern program of education involving as it does many goals, including development of understandings, appreciations, attitudes, and social skills. By administering examinations to children, schools have attempted to measure what has been memorized, and teachers have been considered successful if their pupils did well on the tests. Whether or not the information was retained or used by the boys and girls was not of primary concern.

Recent emphasis in evaluating pupil progress is based on a concept of teaching that attempts to determine what pupils need and to satisfy those needs. Basically, such a method is quite different from the process of establishing preconceived standards used to determine in advance what pupils should have and of administering uniform doses to each child. Increasing attention is being given to evaluating such factors as being able to use information, to draw conclusions from data, and to propose solutions to problems. Evaluation is also concerned with appraisal of the development of a sense of values, the deepening of basic understandings, and the broadening of social and aesthetic appreciations. Even though the type of emphasis indicated has increased the difficulties of evaluation because of the intangibles involved, it has focused the attention of the school upon the growth and adjustment of the child in his environment.

The beginning teacher may properly be concerned about such questions as: With what should the evaluation of pupil progress be concerned? What is measurement? What is evaluation? Who should participate in the evaluation of pupil progress? What part do tests properly play in a sound program of evaluation? What may standardized tests contribute? Teacher-made tests? How are test results properly interpreted and used

ACTION APPROACH

1. *What is measurement?*
2. *What is evaluation? How does it differ from measurement?*
3. *With what should the evaluation of pupil progress be concerned?*
4. *Who should participate in the evaluation of pupil progress?*
5. *What part do tests play in a sound program of evaluation? What may standardized tests contribute? Teacher-made tests?*
6. *How are test results properly interpreted and used to evaluate pupil progress?*
7. *In addition to tests, what other means of evaluation should be used?*
8. *What functions do marks serve? Reports to parents?*
9. *What is the real basis of promotion?*

X.

EVALUATING AND REPORTING PUPIL PROGRESS

WHEREVER there is teaching and learning there is evaluation, because everything a person does is subject to evaluation by himself and others. An individual estimates the value of his experiences in terms of the satisfaction he gains or the degree of progress he makes toward his objectives. In like manner, his activities may be evaluated by others in regard to the progress made toward some goal established by the appraisers. In school situations, evaluation is usually concerned with judgments of actions, achievements, and attitudes. It plays a major part in the establishment of the goals of the teacher and pupils. It provides guidance and direction in making choices, in planning procedures, and in determining next steps.

The evaluation of pupil progress is one of the most difficult tasks confronting the student teacher. Determining whether or not growth is taking place, and how much, are perhaps the most difficult problems in all teaching. The problem of evalua-

tion is made difficult, in part at least, by the effect of tradition upon teachers. The nature and scope of evaluation have heretofore been limited to the confines of a narrow curriculum designed to prescribe information which pupils memorized. Such a narrow conception of evaluation cannot cope with the complexities of a modern program of education involving as it does many goals, including development of understandings, appreciations, attitudes, and social skills. By administering examinations to children, schools have attempted to measure what has been memorized, and teachers have been considered successful if their pupils did well on the tests. Whether or not the information was retained or used by the boys and girls was not of primary concern.

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to evaluate pupil progress? What functions do marks serve? Reports to parents? What is the real basis of promotion?

In the discussion which follows, it seems worthwhile, then, to attempt to throw light on just such questions. Because the use of many instruments and methods of studying and interpreting children's behavior was presented in Chapter IV, the present discussion will be limited to the broader principles and aspects of evaluation as they relate to pupil progress.

59. *Measurement Deals with Quantitative Analysis.*

Measurement is concerned with collecting, recording, and interpreting quantitative data. Determination of amount is the principal focus of measurement. Because it is concerned with the aspects of an element or situation which lend themselves to quantitative analysis, measurement deals with the tangible factors of whatever is being measured. In teaching, for example, measurement reveals how much a pupil has learned or the amount of change which has occurred in his behavior. It tells nothing of the nature, direction, or desirability of the change in behavior. Measurement, then, informs about the degree of whatever is under consideration. Because it deals with precise quantities, measurement in education has tended to consist of testing for distinct and limited learnings.

The process of measurement involves securing quantitative data by applying objective techniques and methods. Since objectivity is a primary characteristic of the process, the results obtained from a good measurement should be essentially the same even when different measurers do the work. It is essential that the student of teaching learn to apply objective measuring techniques wherever feasible. To attempt, however, to reduce analysis of the factors in teaching and learning to objective measurement in the strictest sense is a virtual impossibility. The factors in the teaching-learning situation are influenced to such a degree by the elements of human nature and the relationships of human beings that efforts to make

impersonal measures have not been too successful. The complexity and variability of the multiple factors comprising teaching and learning make strictly objective measurement difficult—or all but impossible—to perform.

60. *Evaluation Includes Qualitative Factors.*

Use of the term *evaluation* implies more than the substitution of another word for *measurement* because evaluation has a broader connotation. By comparison to objective measurement, evaluation secures data concerning the qualitative aspects of whatever is under observation through subjective methods and techniques. The intangible elements of a factor or situation lend themselves more readily to observation and appraisal by evaluative methods than by the techniques of objective measurement. Whereas measurement reveals only the amount of change, evaluation is concerned with the nature and direction of change. In the process of evaluation, for instance, the concern is not only with the changes that education helps to produce in pupils but also with the adequacy and the desirability of the changes. Not only does evaluation strive to answer the question of how much the behavior of the pupil has changed. It hopes to throw light on these questions: How has the behavior changed? In what ways? Have the changes been good or bad? Has the changed behavior been adequate to meet the demands of the situation?

Consider the case of Jane Johnson, the maladjusted girl described in Principle 24 of Chapter IV. Together, Mrs. Ross, the teacher, and Jane were able to bring about observable changes in Jane's behavior. She began to gain control of her temper. She ceased to talk loudly and to swear promiscuously. Her manner and style of dress improved. She became active in community work and assumed the responsibilities of working in the principal's office at school. Were these visible changes in Jane's behavior the only modifications being made? Obviously, there were many other changes occurring. Behind all the ob-

servable changes in manner, dress, speech, association and relation with others, duties, and responsibilities, there had to be the growth of new attitudes, the acceptance of different ideas, the creation of fresh interests, and the development of emotional control and adjustment. These are the intangible, less easily measurable elements in Jane's behavior with which evaluation is concerned.

Evaluation in educational work encompasses a wide range of human activity. It includes the processes and methods by which growth in the physical, mental, emotional, and social areas of development are recorded and appraised. It is the part of the teacher's work which is concerned with the effect of school experiences upon pupils.

61. The Progress of Pupils Is Evaluated in Terms of Sound Educational Objectives.

Against what criteria is the evaluation of pupil progress to be made? The answer to the question when stated directly is: the educational objectives to be achieved. Evaluation of pupil progress then becomes the process of gathering, examining, and interpreting the evidence of the success pupils have attained in reaching the goals toward which they have been striving.

In Chapter V it was shown that the objectives toward which the work of the school is directed stem from the philosophy underlying the educational program. Objectives, moreover, have been defined as certain desirable changes in the behavior of pupils to be achieved through the educational activities and experiences (curriculum) provided and directed by the school. In other words, as teachers and pupils go about their work, they should keep in mind the purposes toward which they are working. The activities and experiences included in the curriculum should produce the kind of behavior in pupils which is a product of the stated goals to be achieved. Within such a framework, then, the program of evaluation operates. It functions within the bounds of the educational philosophy, is

guided and directed by the purposes which shape the curriculum of the school, and is concerned with determining the extent to which the school is reaching its goal through changing the behavior of the children it serves. Evaluation, then, is an integral part of the teaching-learning process and may not be separated from it.

Desirable goals are designed to cover many aspects of pupil growth, including the child's mental, emotional, physical, and social development. It is imperative that the goals be defined in terms of specific and observable behavior rather than vague generalities. Translating goals into observable behavior requires the student teacher to answer such questions as: What does a child do when he gets along well with others? How does a child achieve status in his peer group? How does a pupil learn to assume responsibility? What does a pupil do when he works effectively with his group? How does a child learn to draw conclusions from data? What does a pupil do when he learns to communicate thought?

It is also important that goals be defined in terms of pupils' lives and present needs rather than be projected into the future. It is gratifying to prepare the future parents, wage earners, and citizens of tomorrow; but the boys and girls are living here and now. They will not exist in a vacuum until tomorrow comes—their present needs demand to be met. And, as urged repeatedly, another important factor in the formulation of desirable outcomes is the establishment of goals that can be attained by the particular pupils for whom the objectives are determined. The development of a sound appraisal program relates to goals which are within reasonable reach of the pupils.

Too often beginning teachers test only for the retention of subject matter—important as it is—and assume that other objectives are being achieved. Such practice is totally inadequate. It requires a broad program of evaluation to appraise learning in the many areas involved in the developing of attitudes, knowledge and understandings, and functional skills. The translation of objectives into terms of observable behavior and

the employment of a broad approach to evaluation do not assure the adequate appraisal of pupil growth. They are, however, necessary first steps without which adequate evaluation is impossible. Not only are the processes prerequisite to adequate evaluation, but they operate to foster effective teaching. In other words, by knowing the kind of pupil behavior desired and the results achieved in attaining it, the teacher can help pupils develop the abilities, the understandings, the attitudes, and the values they need. Nevertheless, after goals have been established, clarified, and defined, there still remains the problem of devising means for discovering the degree to which the achievement of the purposes is being realized. There is no easy solution to the problem.

62. *Standardized Tests Are Valuable Tools of Evaluation.*

Teachers use tests probably more than any other educational measuring device. Perhaps the most common purpose of teachers in giving tests has been to arrive at some estimate of how *much* the pupil has learned, in order to issue him a grade. Historically, teachers have measured pupil growth by determining the knowledge gained and the subject matter learned from classroom experiences. Concentration upon such educational outcomes tends to overemphasize the importance of skills and information in the curriculum. It is well for the prospective teacher to realize the importance of these outcomes and of the use of tests in determining them. In a sound program of evaluation, however, recognition is taken of other equally important outcomes, such as development of values, attitudes, and interests, and of the help which tests can give in evaluating the progress pupils make in attaining such changes in behavior.

As indicated in Principle 23 of Chapter IV, standardized tests are of value in learning to understand the educational needs and accomplishments of boys and girls. The selection of standardized tests well suited to the evaluation task at hand requires

some knowledge of the principal characteristics of good tests. Probably the most important characteristic of a test is its validity. A test is said to be valid if it does in fact measure what it is designed to measure. For example, a test meant to measure arithmetic knowledge and skill is not a valid test of mechanical aptitude. It is a valid test of knowledge and skill in arithmetic if it actually measures that particular knowledge and skill and not some other ability or trait. Thus, a test is valid for a specific purpose. Furthermore, it is valid for that purpose with a specific group of children and to the degree to which it achieves its proposed purpose. A test may have high validity for one purpose, slightly less validity for another, and practically none for still another purpose. Thus, the arithmetic test referred to above may possess high validity for the purpose of ranking a group of lower-grade children in order of their total achievement in arithmetic, but it may have less validity for measuring the general arithmetic achievement of upper-grade pupils. It may have little, if any, validity for discriminating among high school pupils in the same subject.

A valid test, then, measures the attainment of specific objectives of instruction. Since this is true, it is possible for a teacher to form a concept of the validity of a test by carefully inspecting its content in relation to what the pupils are supposed to have learned. The type of validity indicated is what is known as curricular validity. Standardized tests are validated in several ways. One way is to compare the test with the common elements of several other tests. Another method is to use the elements common to several tests or courses of study. A third and most common method is to secure the judgment of experts in the field.

It is perfectly proper for the student teacher to believe in measuring a knowledge of facts. It is a mistake, however, to assume that such a measurement is a valid test of all the changes produced through a unified experience. A test is not a valid measure of the results of teaching and learning if it measures only the *tools* required for attaining the desired ob-

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jectives. Valid measurements and evaluations include, for example, the ability to apply the facts learned in order to demonstrate successful achievement of the changes produced by the learning situation.

Another important characteristic of a test is reliability. If a test measures faithfully and consistently whatever it is intended to measure, it is said to be reliable. For example, if a standardized English test is given a second time to the same class and the pupils score in about the same relative order, the test is reliable. Usually, reliability is determined by securing the relationship between scores of a group of pupils on "chance halves" of a test. One way of securing chance halves is to divide the test into halves by placing all odd numbered items in one section and the even numbered ones in another. The two halves would then be administered to the same group of pupils and if their scores were well related, the test would be reliable. That is to say, if the pupils who scored high in the first half also made good scores in the second half, and if those who made medium and low scores on the one half scored accordingly on the other, then there would be a high degree of relationship existing between the two sets of scores. Reliability may also be assessed by determining the relationship between scores on two different forms of the same test, or successive administrations of the same form.

The extent of relationship is usually expressed as a coefficient of correlation. Such coefficient may range from a -1.00 , which indicates a perfect negative relationship, through 0.00 , which shows that two sets of data have no relationship, to $+1.00$, which tells that there is complete agreement. When a coefficient of reliability is below $+ .70$, it is generally considered unsatisfactory. The following interpreted examples of some relationships are given to aid the student teacher in understanding the meaning of coefficients of correlation:

- .95 Successive scores on a good mental ability test.
- .85 Height and weight of young children, six to twelve years.

- .65 Average marks in first year college and high school.
- .50 Characteristics of siblings.
- .30 Achievement in unrelated subjects.
- .00 Political affiliations and sense of beauty.
- .30 Achievement in academic secondary school subjects and age.¹

The coefficient of correlation between two sets of scores, as indicated, is the usual method of expressing the reliability of a test. It is called a reliability coefficient. The size of a reliability coefficient is affected by the range of pupil ability in the group. If the range is fairly large (other factors being the same), the test results will tend to agree and the reliability will be higher than if the differences among the pupils were small.

Other characteristics which the prospective teacher should observe when selecting tests include cost, ease of administration and scoring, comparability, and population used for standardization. The cost of published tests is often a factor in choosing the kinds and types of tests desired. Always, though, it is wiser to select a test prepared by a reliable publisher even if its cost is slightly more than another instrument the authenticity of which is not known.

Accuracy of test results is influenced greatly by the way tests are administered and scored. Sometimes the results are completely invalidated by faulty administration or scoring. Directions for administering and scoring, which are prepared by the author and supplied by the publisher, should be followed exactly in order to assure authentic results. Complicated processes of administering or scoring tend to reduce the accuracy to be attained. It is advisable to select a test which is relatively easy to administer and to score. Ease of scoring, in addition to improving accuracy of results, saves many man-hours of work.

The use of tests having equivalent forms is wise if comparison of the performance of the group at a later date with the

¹ The figures listed are not exact. The purpose is to illustrate the relationships stated by indicating the approximate statistics which apply.

original test results is desired. Comparability of different test forms makes such comparison easy and probably more accurate than use of the same form twice.

The results obtained from administering standardized tests have sometimes been justifiably criticized because the tests have not been well adapted to the group being tested. If pupils have not had the kinds of backgrounds and experiences which are required to achieve success on a test, then the results do not accurately reflect the traits and abilities of the group. For example, a test standardized on a sample of children living in a large industrialized urban center probably cannot be adapted to the testing of pupils who live in a strictly rural section. The two groups have quite different backgrounds conditioned by the experiences they have had in interacting with environments which differ in many ways. In selecting tests, careful examination by the student teacher of the nature of the group on which it was standardized will help to assure more accurate results. As indicated earlier in the discussion of test validity, if the prospective teacher will examine the items of a test and compare the content with what has been studied by the pupils, more valid results are likely to be achieved. An important factor in making the suggested inspection is to determine the kinds of experiences required for successful performance on the test. If, for instance, the pupils to be tested have not had such experiences, they cannot interpret the meaning of the test items correctly and thus could not be expected to give correct answers.

The attention of the student is directed again to the *Mental Measurement Yearbook* edited by Oscar K. Buros which was mentioned in Principle 23 of Chapter IV. The book contains reviews and descriptions which supply valuable information about tests sometimes not provided by authors or publishers.

Standardized tests are to be used for the purposes for which they are designed. The prospective teacher who learns to select, administer, score, and interpret the tests wisely has access to a vast storehouse of helpful information about the achieve-

ments, abilities, progress, and needs of the boys and girls he teaches.

63. *Teacher-Made Tests Are Common Means of Evaluation.*

Testing is one of the important aspects of teaching. The use of tests is helpful to the teacher in clarifying many phases of his work, such as the development of skills, the command of fundamental processes, the promotion of pupils, and the effectiveness of methods and techniques. The use of informal teacher-made tests is by far the widest application of testing employed in the schools of today. There are a number of questions which the tests teachers give should help to answer. Important among such questions are: Exactly what is the test measuring? Factual information? Acquisition of skills? Do the responses to the different items throw light on a pupil's needs? Are the results revealing conditions concerning the whole group? As the result of the test, what can be done to improve the work of the group and to promote the growth of the individual pupils?

The kinds of questions which tests should help teachers answer indicate that tests are administered for various reasons. The teacher who administers a pretest at the beginning of an activity is able to use pupils' backgrounds to make learning meaningful. A diagnostic test reveals the nature of an individual pupil's strengths and weaknesses and helps to explain why he makes errors. Teaching-tests are designed as instructional tools to help the pupil gain the most from his learning experiences. If a test is to fulfill its intended function, it must be properly and carefully prepared. Questions and items hurriedly jotted down on a piece of paper a few minutes before test time will likely have little validity. Certainly, such a test would be largely ineffectual in furnishing the kind of information necessary for intelligent evaluation of the progress boys and girls are making. Test construction is a time-taking, highly specialized process

demanding certain skills. The prospective teacher is not expected to become a test expert, but it is necessary for him to know the basic principles and processes involved in making a good test. And because of the many volumes devoted to test construction, only the important general aspects of building tests need be presented here. For detailed suggestions the student is referred to the references in this volume and to other standard works on test construction.

Perhaps the student teacher will be tempted to ask himself first whether or not he should make an essay-type or an objective-type test. While the question will eventually have to be answered, it is not the wisest approach to the building of a test. The first consideration should be concerned with what the test is expected to measure. Only then can the question of the kind of items—whether essay- or objective-type—be answered. Usually an outline of the purposes of the test and the areas to be included is the best approach. While the outline need not be extensive, it should indicate the relative importance of the different areas and thus help in the selection of items and prevent heavy concentration upon some phases and relative neglect of others.

Essay tests of the conventional type are criticized from several standpoints. It is known that the ambiguity and vagueness of the questions, and the limited sampling, tend to make the tests invalid and unreliable. If essay questions are worded loosely and vaguely, they do not convey to the pupil what is expected. Many questions begin with such words as *discuss*, *tell*, and *describe*. For example: Discuss the causes of the Industrial Revolution. Tell all you can about the results of the Napoleonic Wars. Describe Cooper's style of writing. Indefinite questions of the kind indicated encourage the pupil to guess and to write as much as possible on the item with the hope that some of his response will touch upon the topic and receive credit.

At best a test is a sample of what has been learned and the assumption is made that the responses to the items represent

the abilities of the pupil in the whole area being sampled. The limited sampling of most essay tests tends to make them unreliable indicators of what pupils have learned.

Finally, essay tests are criticized because of the difficulties encountered in scoring them. There are classic examples of erroneous scoring of such tests. In one instance a set of English composition and literature papers was graded by a selected group of teachers. At a later date the identical papers were again graded by the same teachers but this time the grades on the various papers were quite different. Coupled with the problem of subjectivity of scoring is the objection to the teacher having to spend large amounts of time and energy in grading essay-type questions.

Even in the face of the criticisms directed against them, essay-type tests probably have a place and should not be abandoned. Many believe that the tests call upon the pupil to do reflective thinking, to solve problems, and to organize materials in an unusual way. The characteristics indicated may be realized if the beginning teacher recognizes them, believes in this desirability, sees the inadequacy of many tests, and learns how to make good questions and how to be discriminate in evaluating the answers. For example, questions which call for definitions, listings, and enumerations are nearly always superior to the kinds of items indicated above, which require vague discussion, explanation, and telling. The subjectivity of scoring may be reduced by preparing scoring guides that are fairly specific and direct attention to the major outcomes desired.

The student teacher is no doubt cognizant of the increasing use and popularity of the objective-type test. It does not, however, resolve all the difficulties associated with the use of essay tests. Objective-type questions are relatively easy to score. They are objective, and conservative regarding time and energy—at least in their scoring—and they tend to make a valid sampling of pupils' abilities and of what they have learned. On the other hand, the tests take more time to construct, tend to stress details instead of basic concepts, often contain ambiguous

items, and tolerate or even encourage guessing. All of the criticisms may be met, in part at least, by striving to create better objective-type questions. The questions need not stress incidentals or be limited to the recall of isolated facts, because it is possible to construct the items so that they call for the ability to judge, to interpret, and to apply. For example, a situation may be presented in a statement and then the pupil be asked to analyze the basic principles involved or to determine the truth of the statement in terms of what has been learned. Moreover, a situation may be presented which is different from any encountered in the classwork, and the test designed to see how well the pupil can apply what he has learned. The extent of the development of a pupil's abilities may be analyzed and determined by basing upon a single problem several items which call for different skills and understandings.

The most common kinds of objective-type questions which the average prospective teacher will have occasion to use include true-false, multiple choice, completion, and matching. Actually, the true-false item is a form of the alternative-response question. Pupils are usually asked to choose between true-false, right-wrong, or yes-no situations. It is not easy to prepare items in relatively short, clear-cut statements which contain only a single idea. Partly true or false statements or "catch" questions have no place in a test. The idea of testing is not to catch a pupil "off guard" but to determine the extent to which he has achieved desired goals. In order to discourage guessing, the alternative-response tests are sometimes scored by subtracting the wrong from the right responses and ignoring the omitted ones. Pupils like to count the number right as their score, and there is research evidence to show that the rank of the members of a group is essentially the same when the score is based upon the number correct without subtracting the wrong responses.

A multiple-choice or selective-response item requires a pupil to choose the correct or best answer from a list of four or five

possible responses which follow a direct statement or question. For example:

- ____ 1. There is evidence to show that mental growth:
- ceases at age eighteen.
 - continues to age twenty.
 - never ceases.
 - continues at least until the period of senility is reached.

It is wise to include in the main body of the statement or problem as much of the question as possible, thus reducing the length of the responses. While only one response is the correct or best answer, all of those listed should be plausible. Items are improved by locating the expected response among the others in a varied manner in the different questions and never according to a fixed pattern. Ease of scoring is facilitated by following the format of the foregoing example so that the letter or number of the pupil's answer is written on the line at the left of the number of the question. When all question numbers are kept in vertical line, a scoring key may be easily prepared and used to score the papers.

Completion questions may be written in the form of simple-recall or short-answer items. In either form the pupil must recall rather than recognize the answer. Some teachers feel that the completion item may be better adapted to some fields, including mathematics and science, rather than to others, such as social studies, although general practice shows that the type of question is highly flexible and adaptable to many areas and kinds of material. For example:

- ____ 1. How many sides has a decagon?
- (a) _____ 2. The sum of three numbers is 144. If the
(b) _____ second is twice the first and the third is
(c) _____ three times the first, the numbers are:
(a) _____, (b) _____, and (c) _____.
- ____ 3. The first nation to settle what is now Florida was _____.
- ____ 4. The author of *Robinson Crusoe* is _____.

All blanks within the items as well as the lines intended for the answers should be of the same length. If articles *a* or *an* precede a blank, they tend to act as a cue to the response. While a good item requires a single idea for each blank, the best practice permits the respondent freedom in his choice of words. Hence the use of statements from printed material with critical words omitted does not represent good practice because it tends to encourage mere memorization rather than basic understanding.

The matching test requires the pupil to match the items listed in one column with the explanatory statements given in a second column. The number or letter of the correct statement is written beside the item in the first column. For example:

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| —1. John Adams | A. First Secretary of Treasury of the United States. |
| —2. James Oglethorpe | B. Leader of Quakers. |
| —3. Alexander Hamilton | C. Second President of the United States. |
| | D. Governor of Virginia. |
| | E. Founded Georgia colony. |

Unbalancing the columns makes the test more difficult because the process of elimination alone will not disclose the correct answers. The number of pairs to be matched usually ranges from ten to fifteen in a good test. If long lists of items are to be included they may be grouped into different matching tests. Good practice results from requiring the matching of like elements, such as the names of men in history with outstanding deeds, events, and accomplishments, or significant dates with important events, and so forth. The mixing of names, dates, events, and terms in a single matching test usually makes it difficult to word the explanatory statements in such a way as to prevent the disclosure of the correct response.

Unfortunately, the attitude of many beginning teachers toward tests tends to be one of complacent overconfidence. Probably, the development of such an attitude is not wholly the fault of the teachers but partly the result of their not having

been made aware of the imperfections of the tests they make and use. Consequently, they have been content to rely heavily upon test results and to remain aloof from efforts to improve practice.

The heavy reliance of teachers upon tests, and the ways in which they have been used to reveal the instructors' concepts of values in what has been taught and learned, have resulted in undesirable attitudes of pupils toward tests. Too often pupils fear tests because of the emphasis teachers place upon test performance and its relationship to promotion. The solution lies in the direction of improving test construction and use. Certainly the attitude of many educators is that tests need to be improved and used with prudence and wisdom to contribute more effectively toward the realization of desired goals. It does not seem likely that the demands of those who wish to remove tests entirely from educational practice will be well received. Probably, a more widely acceptable solution is, as indicated, to continue to improve the tests themselves and to use them to reveal the attainment of sound educational objectives in a better way.

Whether or not tests are valuable is dependent upon the extent to which they reveal the learning or the changes in behavior which are taking place in children. At best, tests can only parallel the real behavior of pupils. As indicated, they sample the behavior of boys and girls and by that means reveal the nature of the way children behave. Tests are valid to the extent that they reveal the real behavior of pupils. They are reliable if they consistently reveal that behavior. Too often beginning teachers assume that test situations are more valid than the real-life experiences of pupils. Such a condition cannot exist. The most that may be expected is that a test furnish a quick way of observing and determining what might be learned in perhaps an even better way by having more experience with a child. The real purpose of tests is to assist in the evaluative function, which is aimed at evaluating the actual behavior of boys and girls.

64. *Test Results Must Be Properly Interpreted and Used.*

Of what value are test results unless they are used in meeting the needs of pupils? A test means little in itself. Test results filed in cabinets or recorded, however beautifully, on record cards are valueless except when teachers use the information in their daily work with boys and girls. Sometimes the results of tests are misused and actually do harm to the pupils involved. Unfortunately, the results of tests in the hands of a misguided teacher may be used to label or brand a child who has not done well as an incapable individual doomed to failure. On the other hand, the intelligent use of tests brings into use the whole matter of varying teaching to meet varying needs.

How is the prospective teacher to interpret test results? Do they tell him that the pupils have learned more when he teaches them, or are his tests easier than others? Is the group actually reading extensively and learning more with the particular methods being used, or is the student teacher overly enthusiastic about what he is doing? Have all pupils been stimulated to work harder, or is the test too easy?

The answers depend upon the factors indicated in the queries and on others located in the various aspects of the teaching-learning situation. For example, if standardized tests are considered, the answers to the questions definitely will be influenced by the use made of the norms. When norms are looked upon as indicators of superior teaching and achievement, they profoundly influence the quality of the teaching and the nature of the learning. The norms of a test do not determine the goals of any group because they are nothing more than statistics indicating average achievement. National norms reflect the average attainment of large groups of pupils who range from dull to bright, and who are taught poorly and well in schools which are impoverished, mediocre, or excellent. In a specific teaching-learning situation, the national norms may indicate far too low a level of achievement to serve as a desirable goal for the group. On the other hand, the use of

norms as desirable objectives may establish goals far beyond the reach of the group.

The conscientious student teacher, who strives to attain the norm with his pupils, may or may not be exercising good judgment, depending upon the way his group compares with the children on whom the test was standardized. Intelligently interpreted norms are indicative of the success attained by average teaching, if the pupils have backgrounds of experience and knowledge comparable to those on whom the test was standardized. Presumably, norms are more valid, other factors being equal, for the pupil of average ability than they are for the bright or dull boy or girl.

Consider again the example of the sixth grade reading test presented in Principle 22 of Chapter IV. It is not enough to know the norm of reading comprehension for sixth graders on the test and to judge whether the present group is below, at, or beyond that level of proficiency in reading. The problem facing the student teacher is that of knowing whether the level of performance indicated by the norm may be used to determine what his sixth graders are doing in reading. How does his group compare with the pupils on whom the test was standardized? Have they had similar backgrounds of experience? Are they comparable in ability? Until such kinds of questions are answered, a comparison of the performances of the present group to the norm is relatively meaningless. For instance, it may be that the reading comprehension of the student teacher's sixth graders should far exceed the norm on the test because his children are much more capable than those used to standardize the test. In that event, the mere achievement of the norm does not represent desirable progress in reading. On the other hand, if the reverse situation exists with respect to the abilities of the two groups, the attainment of the norm by the student's pupils may represent very satisfactory performance or even superior achievement in reading comprehension.

Interpretation of individual performance is illustrated in the same example by the cases of Sue and Jay. The fact that Sue's

reading comprehension was at the norm is not sufficient information to interpret her performance adequately. It is necessary to relate present performance to other factors such as ability in order for the student of teaching to make an intelligent interpretation of Sue's test results in reading. Similarly, it is not correct to interpret Jay's reading comprehension as sub-normal because he is a sixth grader who is comprehending at fifth grade level. Accurate interpretation of Jay's test results is made in terms of his abilities, behavior, and background of experience.

Probably no test or series of tests can diagnose the behavior of individual pupils well enough to replace the judgment of teachers who know the children. Certainly the foregoing discussion makes it clear that a test score alone is insufficient information for the making of an adequate diagnosis of a pupil's behavior. It should not be assumed, however, that test results may not be used to indicate pupils' achievement in sufficient detail to permit discovery of weaknesses and to analyze the underlying causes of error. Generally speaking, nearly every achievement test, whether essay, objective, standardized, or teacher-made, can be made to serve some diagnostic purpose. The tests which the prospective teacher makes, for example, can be constructed to give evidence of such behavior as the development of verbal skills, the formulation of attitudes, the interpretation of data, the location of information from various sources, and the comprehension and understanding of directions. In addition to sampling the mastery of subject matter, which has been their traditional strength, standardized achievement tests now assist the student of teaching in evaluating such factors of behavior as social competence, critical thinking, and social attitudes.

The primary source of usefulness is the indication that tests give of the strengths and weaknesses of pupils, and of their successes and difficulties. It is not nearly enough for the beginning teacher to stop with the knowledge that his group or an individual in it made a high or low score by comparison with

others. It is such use of test results that has become inconsistent with the educational philosophy of this volume, which advances the belief that a pupil's curriculum is based upon his needs and capacities and related to his interests. The more detailed the analysis of the pupil's needs and the causes of his errors, the greater is the teacher's opportunity to guide and direct his learning and development.

65. *Evaluation Uses Many Kinds of Information.*

The behavior of boys and girls is very complicated, and many times it is difficult to understand and interpret. Equally complex and difficult are some of the processes and methods which it is necessary to use in making an intelligent evaluation of the modifications which occur in pupils' behavior. A great amount of information is needed by the beginning teacher who seeks to evaluate adequately and intelligently the kind, quantity, and nature of the changes which take place in the pupils he teaches.

Tests are but one means of studying pupils and of furnishing the information necessary to evaluate the progress they have made toward attaining desired goals. Observations of boys and girls in the daily activities of the educational program afford the student of teaching many opportunities to judge the progress being made. Sociometric techniques may help to throw light on the social and emotional development of children. Similarly, aptitude tests, interest and personality inventories, case studies, various kinds of records, including the anecdotal type, and conferences and interviews with pupils, parents, teachers, and even other persons—all have a contribution to make toward evaluating the changes taking place in pupils.

The student is referred to Chapter IV, and especially to Principle 23, for a discussion of the different methods listed above and of their application to the understanding and interpreting of children's behavior. It is hoped that the principles of the present chapter will not be considered a complete anal-

<p>GROUP PARTICI-PATION</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Offers suggestions and information during group discussion 2. Volunteers for group jobs 3. Listens while others talk 	<p>WILLINGNESS TO SHARE</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Takes only his fair share of the teacher's and the group's time 2. Shares materials with group 3. Respects ideas of others 	<p>BROAD INTERESTS</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reads more and better books 2. Participates in more varied group activities 3. Feels responsibility of citizenship
<p>INTEREST IN WORK</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Contributes to discussions 2. Uses reference materials 3. Brings materials from home for group use 4. Attempts construction work 	<p>ABILITY TO WORK INDEPENDENTLY</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Shows confidence in his ability to do the work 2. Completes assignments with a minimum of help 3. Finds worthwhile occupation for free time 	<p>LEADERSHIP</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Works well with others 2. Helps make new pupils welcome 3. Makes a good committee chairman 4. Does not insist that his own plans be accepted 5. Makes wise choices of students to execute committee plans

FIGURE 5. Method of Evaluating Intangibles in a Teaching-Learning Situation. (Adapted from Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1953, pp. 254-255.)

work independently, development of broad interests, and ability to exercise leadership. Through supervisor-teacher-pupil planning, the group has been able to devise improved ways of evaluating pupil growth. The device shown in Figure 5 illustrates the simplicity of the method.

Each time the behavior of a child exhibits any of the charac-

teristics listed on the chart in Figure 5, a check mark is placed opposite his name in the column headed by the factor to be evaluated. Such a procedure furnishes a kind of profile of each individual, since the array of check marks opposite his name gives some indication of the nature of his development. A brief descriptive summary of each case is recorded at the extreme right side of the chart. The record of the dates covered by the period of evaluation furnishes a base line for estimating progress. The technique has been used at some grade levels by both the teachers and the pupils. During a period of time, a teacher and a pupil make separate evaluations of the progress made. At the end of the evaluation period, they compare findings, estimate progress, and decide what further efforts are required.²

The example serves to bring together several principles of evaluation to which attention has been called. A base line of evaluation is established—it is the beginning date of observation from which point progress is measured. A period of evaluation is determined—the time included between the beginning and ending dates. The establishment of base lines and periods of evaluation add definiteness and tangibility to the evaluative process for both teacher and pupils. Further tangibility is added by the profile made by the array of check marks. Finally, traits have been defined in terms of real behavior which both teacher and pupils can understand and observe. Needs and directions for further efforts are indicated by those specific aspects of behavior which the child should acquire or modify in order to become a well-developed individual.

66. *Evaluation of Pupil Progress Is a Co-operative Process.*

The evaluation of the progress of pupils is as much a responsible activity of all concerned as is participation by the teacher and pupil in the activities of the teaching-learning situation. Determining whether or not change in behavior has occurred

² Adapted from Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision*, American Book Company, New York, 1953, pp. 254-256.

can be done by the teacher and the pupil, but judging the nature and direction of the modifications which have taken place involves all concerned, including parents and administrators. Actually, the persons involved are all going to evaluate the progress of pupils, whether or not the opportunity is afforded for formal participation in the process of evaluation. Excluding others except the pupil and teacher from the business of evaluation stunts the growth of healthy school-home relations and prevents receipt of the excellent help such persons may give. Including them builds group spirit and assures the making of more valid judgments.

Including parents in the evaluation of the progress their children make in school serves to increase the effectiveness of the learning situation. To be sure, parents cannot participate in evaluating all the activities of pupils, and it is not reasonable to expect such participation. On the other hand, they can help plan the kinds of behavioral changes most desirable for their children to achieve and assist in establishing the criteria by which the progress of the achievement is judged. Having had a part in the determination of goals and the evaluation of pupils' progress toward them, parents are less likely to misunderstand and criticize the school program than if they had been excluded. Moreover, parental participation of the type indicated orients the educational function of the home toward the program of the school and thereby creates a more efficient total learning situation for the child.

Enlisting the participation of pupils in evaluating their work and progress assists and encourages them to formulate goals of their own and to plan intelligently to reach their objectives. One of the principal contributions of evaluation to the education of boys and girls is the help it gives in assisting them to learn how to control and improve the conditions which surround them. Only those persons who have together established their desired goals and planned a program of activity to reach the purposes can truly evaluate the progress they have made toward achieving the recognized objectives. Evaluation should

be viewed by all concerned as a constructive process aimed at improving learning.

The participation of pupils in evaluation develops their abilities to become increasingly self-directive. As the pupil matures, he should play an increasingly important part in the evaluation of his development and in the analysis of his strengths and weaknesses. The value of the foregoing statements becomes apparent when the type of evaluative technique described in Principle 65 (of this chapter) and illustrated in Figure 4 is applied to self-evaluation by pupils. If, as suggested, a pupil learns to apply the technique to his own activity and behavior and finds, perhaps with the help of the teacher, that he is not learning to work independently, he has discovered for himself a basic need for improvement. The fact that he has himself discovered the need is significantly important because it is now a need of which he is truly cognizant and not merely one called to his attention by the teacher. This is not to say that the revelation of needs by teachers is unimportant. Rather, it means that the evaluation by pupils of their activities and experiences in terms of personal life goals makes the pupils increasingly able to determine their needs and to plan ways of meeting them. Certainly the goals of pupils differ, and each pupil must take into consideration his own particular objectives and the degree to which he is achieving them. Moreover, he must relate such factors to his preferred activities, as these become meaningful within the framework of his plans for the future. Self-evaluation becomes more and more necessary to determining satisfactory achievement as boys and girls progress toward maturity.

The co-operative evaluation of pupil progress helps all concerned to judge the worth of individual activities in terms of personal goals and of broader social objectives and purposes.

67. *Evaluation of Pupil Progress Is a Continuous, Recurrent Process.*

Evaluation is not an end in itself—it is a means to an end. The progressive development of the pupil is the justification for the evaluation procedure. Thus, evaluation which is fragmentary or which is postponed until the end of a process or period of activity is relatively useless. Terminal evaluations make possible a review of experience, but they do not permit the experience to be improved while it is in progress. On the other hand, evaluation which is continuous as to operation may be directed toward the nature of objectives, as well as pupil development. It has been stated that the nature and direction of the change in behavior are as important as the amount of change itself. Effective evaluation focuses upon the kinds of objectives to be attained in terms of their desirability in light of pupils' needs, interests, and abilities, as well as the extent to which the goals have been reached.

Continuous evaluation implies that appraisal and revision are included as integral parts of the teaching-learning process. As such, the procedures must provide for the discovery of needs, the formulation of objectives, the study of activities and experiences in light of sound principles of teaching and learning, the determination of the extent of attainment of the objectives, and the analysis of the adequacy of the objectives themselves. This procedure must recur in a continuing cycle if evaluation is actually to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the school.

By employing continuous evaluation, the prospective teacher is able to improve the quality of the learning experiences by preventing waste of time and effort and unnecessary overlapping and duplication. Constant comparison of the progress at every stage of the learning process with the status of the work at the beginning of an activity enables the student teacher to determine whether continuous or sporadic progress is being made. The lack of continuous progress may indicate the need

for discarding some types of experience and replacing them with those of greater worth. In this way time and energy are conserved and profitless busy work is eliminated. Thus, to evaluate only at the end of an activity does not always reveal what has taken place. It may be that the pupil had an advanced knowledge of the activity in the beginning and needed another kind of experience, or he may have frittered away his time until he knew the evaluation was to occur and then attempted to conceal his waste of time. Probably, terminal evaluation of the type indicated is most helpful in formulating next steps and in planning future activities.

If the student of teaching is actually to improve the teaching-learning situation to a significant degree, and if this improvement is to be of real and lasting value, then it is necessary to make continuous studies of the needs of pupils and of the extent to which these needs are being met. Provision must also be made for meeting the needs. Continuous evaluation permits determination of the points at which activities and experiences cease to be profitable in meeting the needs of pupils, and assists in the redirection of the program.

68. *Marks Should Reflect the Attainment of Objectives.*

... I wonder if I should fail Harry? If I fail him, what has he failed? Should I pass Nancy? If I pass her, what has she passed? What are marks? What is the purpose of marking? As a teacher should I try to make the pupils in my group little "standardized products"? Which is more important Harry's self-respect, and unworried sleep or the arithmetic knowledge prescribed in the course of study?

These are some of the apparently simple questions which raise such big problems for students of teaching. Actually, there are no single or simple answers to the questions. Moreover, volumes have been written about the basic problems involved in marking. The present discussion, however, is concentrated

upon some of the basic elements concerned with marks and marking.

In reality, a mark is a symbol intended to show a pupil and his parents how well he is succeeding. Thus, it becomes the vehicle for conveying ideas to parents and pupils concerning school success, even though the mark is merely the abbreviation of the ideas themselves. While marks undoubtedly convey ideas to parents, to pupils, and even to teachers about the school's estimate of the pupil's achievements, the grades do not give assurance of the validity or reliability of the estimate. Furthermore, marks usually communicate little information to parents or pupils concerning ways in which achievement may be improved.

Marks are used to stimulate children to greater learning effort and to motivate behavior. If this function of marks were realized fully with every pupil, there would not be any question concerning the positive values derived. Examination reveals, however, that in practice marks may not encourage pupils to exert their best efforts, and may actually discourage them. Consider, for example, the case of Mary Henderson, who is having difficulty with arithmetic skills in grade five. Her teacher continues to issue low marks based on comparative estimates of Mary's achievement with brighter members of the group. Try as hard as she can Mary probably will never achieve at the same level as her brighter peers, and hence she must be satisfied with an inferior rating. There is evidence though that Mary is not satisfied, but is becoming discouraged and is making only a token effort to do her work.

In the same group with Mary Henderson is George Roberts. George is a bright boy who apparently quickly and easily learns the arithmetic skills. His success is not necessarily motivating him to acquire the proper values. In other words, his scholarship will assist him to attain the high mark as an end in itself, but he is not interested in acquiring the excellent knowledge of arithmetic which is what the superior rating is supposed to indicate.

Stated in another way, the need for marks to stimulate pupil effort is based upon the assumption that pupils do not wish to undergo the experiences provided for them by the school. To some extent the assumption is true. Teachers have resorted to the controls exemplified by marks to force pupils to participate in predetermined learning activities, to learn subject matter prescribed in advance, and slavishly to follow dictated courses of study. Under the whiplash of threatened failure or the pressure of the publicly announced honor roll, both slow and bright pupils have been urged to greater efforts. Thus, in actuality the use of marks in the ways indicated has served the same purposes as the cane and the paddle.

Hence, the claim that marks motivate pupils in proper ways has to be examined critically. What is more, an educational program which has to depend upon the extrinsic motivation of devices such as marks to get pupils to work is open to criticism concerning its character and quality. A sound, strong school program furnishes its own motivation.

The most valid use of marking is to help the pupil, his teacher, and his parents to discover his strong and weak points. Once that information is known, then a program designed to meet the pupil's needs may be intelligently planned. Moreover, it is only in light of such facts that the pupil's experiences and the aspects of the school program can be sensibly organized to provide optimum conditions for assuring continuous progress.

The student teacher is undoubtedly familiar with several marking systems, including, perhaps, percentages, letter grades, descriptive terms, check lists, or class rank. Probably the oldest system is the percentage method, which is rapidly being replaced. The inherent weaknesses of the system are almost too well known to be repeated here. It seems sufficient to say that the basic weaknesses include the need for teachers to make too many fine discriminations of the values involved and the false assumption that the difference between consecutive percentages at different points on the scale from 0 to 100 are equal. For example, the difference between 19 and 20 is not equiva-

lent to the difference between 95 and 96, even though teachers apparently consider the differences to be equal.

Letter grades and descriptive terms have become quite popular. Usually the letter grade system is built upon a five-point scale—A, B, C, D, and F. Similarly, the descriptive terms have been made to reflect five distinctions—Superior, Excellent, Good, Poor, and Failure. Sometimes the refinement of the terms is reduced to three, or even to two, categories, such as Satisfactory, Unsatisfactory, and Improving or to Pass and Fail. Many school people argue that such descriptive terms do not reveal the evaluation of pupil progress any more effectively than letter grades.

In order to introduce more refinement and to base estimations of progress more upon behavioral changes, check lists of traits and abilities, as well as subject matter, are employed.

The matter of ranking a fairly large group of pupils in all the areas of learning included in the elementary school, or even on the secondary level, is nearly too great a task to be attempted successfully by today's busy teacher. While class rank is used in some high schools, the elementary schools have not been inclined to adopt the practice.

The interpretation placed upon marks by pupils, teachers, and parents is important. There is no doubt that a mark is an inadequate informational device, simply because it cannot be intelligently interpreted by anyone. The trouble stems from the fact that the mark is actually a single symbol which represents numerous values of different types. For example, what does the mark of 75 mean for Mary Henderson, the little fifth grade girl referred to earlier? Does it mean that Mary knows 75 per cent of all the arithmetic skills in the course of study or of those included on the final test? Were Mary's attitude toward work and the fact that she tried hard and worked up to capacity included in Mary's grade of 75 per cent? Were her understanding and mastery of different skills such as solving word problems and understanding number concepts all at the 75 per cent level?

George Roberts, who was in Mary's group in arithmetic, made 95 per cent. George will remain the highest in the class without having to do more work if the others, who were all below him, do not raise their scores beyond his on the retest and if he scores as high as he did at first. Does George's mark mean high achievement on an absolute scale, or in relation to the achievement of the group? Does it mean he has attained high achievement in relation to his own ability? The score of 95 per cent standing alone does not say.

In another school, Henry Rogers received a *B* in English composition. Is Henry's achievement at the *B* level in all aspects of the work, including sentence structure, use of vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation? What elements determine *B*-level work? Was the *B* grade a measure of Henry's progress from where he was in English composition at the last grading period, or of his achievement compared to others in the group on the final test? The *B* on Henry's report does not answer the questions.

Do the same marks represent equivalent achievement when issued by different teachers? For example, would the *B* grade of Henry Rogers have been an *A* or a *C* if it had been issued by another teacher? Research shows that the difference in marking standards among teachers is as great as a whole letter in a four-letter system and as large as 11 per cent in a percentage system. Moreover, there is variation among the standards of different schools. For instance, in a school with capable pupils the requirements are likely to be much higher than they are in a school with less able children. An *A*, for example, in the second school may be equivalent only to a *C* in the first. Obviously, the reliability of grades is not indicated by the marks themselves and pupils, parents, and even teachers have no way of interpreting what the symbols mean or of determining what faith to put in them.

Certainly, part of the difficulty with understanding what marks mean is because a single index is being used to describe a multiple outcome. A single index will give an intelligent

indication only of a unit outcome or achievement, or of several outcomes which are identical. The probability is slight that the outcomes would be identical in so complicated a process as the education of a child. Moreover, the achievement of the child in any subject area such as arithmetic is not limited to a single outcome. For example, if the pupil is highly accurate in certain arithmetic processes and is inaccurate in others, one mark, even though it is an average, does not indicate the differences in achievement.

The competitive marking system is based upon the assumption that the ability and opportunity of all pupils are equivalent. The assumption is, in fact, the foundation of the motivating force underlying the traditional marking system. The system is geared to the business of comparing one pupil's achievement with that of the others, but not of seeking to get the pupil to work up to the level of his ability. The inherent unfairness in the system is related to the obvious falseness of the underlying basic assumption. Certainly, no two pupils are alike in ability and background for academic achievement, and of those who differ greatly, the slow ones can never achieve at the high level of the others no matter how great an effort is exerted. The situation is analogous to requiring a group to jump over a high-jump bar set at a fairly high level. Those who do not have the ability will never be able to clear the bar and thus are doomed to constant failure no matter how hard they try to make the jump.

Some students of teaching assume that a highly competitive grading system effectively prepares for adult life, because competition is believed to be a basic force in adult living. In the first place, it may be said that training children to desire to win at the expense of others is not a desirable educational goal. As pointed out earlier, the competition of unequals is unfair, is a violation of sound mental hygiene, and does not recognize the principles of individual differences. Those children who receive high marks may find them to become their sole means of gaining status in the group. Moreover, they may

become intellectual snobs. On the other hand, those children who are not academically capable and who consistently receive low marks do not become active competitors for long. They soon learn that they are going to lose every time and begin to concentrate on saving face and reinforcing their concept of self.

The school, however, does not properly fulfill its role by creating an environment of false security in which children become unable to adjust adequately to reality. There is ample opportunity for the application of competition in the school program. There is nothing undesirable in teaching children to work hard and play hard to win according to the rules. And there is nothing wrong in winning. What is needed is proper orientation and emphasis in the training afforded children along the lines indicated. Boys and girls need to learn that others can perform some activities and develop some skills in ways which they themselves cannot. Such realizations are properly made the bases of wholesome respect for others, rather than elements of envy or self-pity. Furthermore, children need aid in discovering the activities they can learn to perform well and the skills they can develop to acceptable levels of achievement. The knowledge of such aspects of personality provides strong motivation for many boys and girls and assists them in forming a concept of self that is acceptable and wholesome.

The experimentation which has been done reveals no quick, easy, and simple solutions to the problems of marking. The efforts have revealed a need to concentrate upon the inherent nature of the evaluation of pupil progress, and not upon the extrinsic devices and means usually used to approximate an estimation of achievement. The important question, then, is not whether to use percentages, letter grades, or descriptive terms but what is the character of the evaluation to be made. Fundamentally, the problems of marking which are summarized in the foregoing statements are not problems concerning which symbols to use. Rather, they are problems basically concerned with the needs and abilities of boys and girls, the objec-

tives of the educational program, and the progress pupils have made toward achieving their goals.

Intelligent marking by the student teacher will be done when he understands the needs, abilities, and interests of his pupils, when he identifies the purposes (changes in behavior) which are to be achieved through the activities and experiences provided, and when he determines the progress made by pupils in acquiring the desired changes in behavior (purposes and objectives). Probably, no single mark or system of grading is adequate—or best. Perhaps a combination of factors, as well as a differentiation of the component elements of changed pupil behavior, is required for adequate evaluation of the progress a pupil makes in school.

69. *Readiness Is the Basis of Promotion.*

If the curriculum of the school were based upon, and developed in terms of, the needs, interests, and abilities of boys and girls, students of teaching would have no problems of marking or promotion. That is to say, if going to school meant for pupils participation in educational experiences organized in a broad, unified series about basic needs, provided without time and subject-matter restrictions, then grades, failures, and promotions would have no place. The reason they would have no place is that children would be learning, developing, growing, and maturing in a continuous, progressive pattern especially designed to meet their needs and developed in terms of their abilities.

The ideal outlined above probably has never been achieved—or even closely approximated—in American education. Many educators believe that it never can be achieved as long as the graded school is maintained, at least in its present organizational pattern. If there were no next grade, then there would be no need to fail or promote a pupil. He would merely continue to work to obtain the goals determined by his educational needs. The primary-unit plan and the intermediate-unit plan

are organized basically upon the idea of continuous pupil progress, and thus represent an approach to the situation indicated in the foregoing statements. Such plans are in operation in a number of places, including Wichita, Kansas, Provo, Utah, Corona, California, Tampa, Florida, and Marblehead, Massachusetts.

The primary-unit includes the first three grades usually found in the elementary school. If the kindergarten is a part of the school system, it usually is included. Thus, the unit embraces a three-year or four-year ungraded organizational arrangement. In four years a child normally moves through a unit which includes the kindergarten and first three grades. The slow learning child usually finishes the unit in five years. If the organizational plan includes the intermediate grades of four, five, and six, the average time of completion for a pupil is three additional years, and the slow learner usually takes four years to finish the work.

Probably some types of core programs are the best approaches which have been made at the secondary level to achieve the advantages of a continuous-progress, ungraded organizational pattern. Especially is this true in those programs which have eliminated subject-matter departmentalization and compartmentalization and have organized work around the persistent problems and imperative needs of youth.

It must be recognized, however, that the primary-unit, the intermediate-unit, the core program, or other organizational arrangements do not solve instructional problems caused by the inability of teachers and curriculums to meet the varying needs of pupils. All that such patterns of organization can do is to broaden the limits within which the teachers work. It still remains for students of teaching to master the art of fitting instruction to the individual child.

Similarly, it may be said that conventional marking and promotional practices do not solve the basic problems of instruction. They are merely means of stimulating pupils to do what the school wants them to do and of motivating them to

exert real effort in doing it. In actual practice, marking systems and promotional policies tend to contribute to problems of classification and placement and protect inadequate curriculums and ineffective instruction. The results of studies show that failure or nonpromotion do not have the stimulating power and positive motivational effect on achievement that is claimed for them. As a matter of fact, it has been demonstrated that the motivational effect of promotion far exceeds that of failure. Moreover, it is known that pupils are not motivated by failure unless they understand the reasons why they failed and know what to do to improve and to avoid failure in the future.

The answer, then, to the basic question, when should a pupil be promoted, lies in an intelligent understanding and application of the fundamental processes of determining the common and individual needs of boys and girls and of providing the kind of program necessary to meet the needs which have been discovered. Any sound plan of carrying out the proposal would regard promotion as dependent upon readiness to perform the next step necessary to meet the need or reach the desired goal. Failure would be limited, primarily, to the refusal to perform adequately any reasonable assignment or task upon which the child and teacher had agreed and which was understood and accepted by the pupil as the next desirable thing to do.

Any intelligent method or system of evaluation recognizes the existence of individual variation among children in their physical, emotional, social, and intellectual capacities, traits, and abilities. It is known, for example, that when children enter the first grade, they may differ as much as four years in reading readiness. By the time they have reached the fifth grade, less than half of a given group are at "fifth grade" reading level, and the others are scattered above and below that norm. The truth is that there is a wide range of ability which often reaches a six-year span in any particular grade, despite the promotional policy of the school. Certainly it may be observed that the conventional system of marking and promoting pupils

has not reduced the range of abilities to be found in any one grade. No scheme of promotion alone can solve the basic problem of meeting the range of needs resulting from individual differences in rate of growth and maturation.

Basically, the school should provide the type of environment for children at different levels of maturity with which they can interact to achieve optimum growth and development in desirable directions. Problems of promoting children from one type of environment to another are concerned with determining when they can no longer profit from the environment of the present situation and need to be moved into the next. In other words, the suggestion provides a continuous-progress pattern. Under the proposed plan, moving a child from the lower elementary to the intermediate, for example, depends upon his ability to continue to profit from the environment of the lower level or his need to be placed in the situation of the intermediate unit. Similarly, in the secondary school, pupils should be moved into and out of the environments of different levels in terms of their needs, interests, and abilities to profit by their present situation and the conditions of the next. Readiness for the environment of the next situation is the basis of promotion.

It is apparent that conventional plans of promotion and marking do not satisfactorily: stimulate pupils to exert greater efforts, inform either parents or children about their progress and success in school, reduce variability within grades, and produce better adjustment. In light of the conditions, the student of teaching might well question whether the usual concept of "promotion" is adequate. Certainly questions may be raised in terms of the school's obligation to accept children at the age of five or six and to promote their optimum development in desirable directions over a period normally covering twelve years. Any concept, plan, or condition which clearly opposes the fulfillment of the school's obligation is questionable.

70. *Improvement of the Child's School Life Is the Reason for Reporting to Parents.*

It is important that the student of teaching clarify his thinking concerning the basic function of reporting pupil progress to parents. Only as the student sees clearly the purposes of reporting can he develop and use devices which adequately implement the function. The time-honored function of reports to parents is to convey to them the nature of what their offspring are doing in school and the teacher's best estimate of how well the tasks are being accomplished. Coupled with the traditional function of school reports have been several other purposes, including developing school support, determining recommendations for promotion, improving the educational results of pupils, assisting teachers in becoming acquainted with pupils, and improving the confidence of parents and the public in the school.

The concept presented in the principle under discussion includes more in the way of purposes to be served by reports to parents than a single job of conveying information. Certainly, informing parents is basic to reporting to them, but what is wanted is an interactive exchange of information between parents and teachers—the home and the school. Efforts are directed toward involving parents in the making of judgments regarding the child's welfare and progress in school. A reporting system which improves the child's school life enlists the co-operation of parents in guiding the experiences of children, deals with values which are understood and appreciated by pupils, parents, and teachers, and reports on various aspects of the school program, so that the parent sees his child—as a member of a group and as an individual—benefiting by the strengths of the school and being affected by its needs.

In Principle 31, Chapter V, it was declared that the objectives of the school are best defined in terms of component behavioral outcomes which are meaningful to pupils, parents, and teachers. It was further stated that the curriculum should be composed

of the experiences and activities provided and directed by the school to achieve its objectives. Thus, the experiences and activities in which pupils engage in school are provided to produce changes in their behavior in terms of the desired outcomes expressed in the objectives. The function of reports of pupil progress, then, is to show the amount and nature of the changes taking place in the behavior of pupils and to indicate ways in which parents and teachers may help improve the children's school life.

Perhaps an example will help to clarify what is meant. The report form of the Fayette County, Kentucky, schools for grades three to six lists the objectives for the various areas of the curriculum in terms of behavioral outcomes. To illustrate, for English the following outcomes are listed:

1. Uses good form in all written work.
2. Expresses ideas well in writing.
3. Expresses ideas well orally.
4. Speaks clearly and correctly.³

Through the experiences and activities provided, children will have opportunity to learn good form in written work, to express ideas orally and in writing, and to learn to speak clearly and correctly. The purpose of the report to parents is to show how well the children are learning to perform the desired activities and to indicate approaches toward improvement. In other words, at the beginning of the term, where were John and Mary in their ability to express ideas well orally? Where are they now? How much has their behavior changed in the area of good oral expression? Hence, how much progress has been made? What possible improvement is indicated? Thus, the significant information which the reports convey is concerned with the character of the achievement by children of the behavioral outcomes which are understood and appreciated by pupils, parents, and teachers. In addition, the reports in-

³ Fayette County Schools, Lexington, Kentucky, *Report to Parents, Grades 3-6*.

LANGUAGE ARTS

1ST REPORT	2ND REPORT	3RD REPORT	4TH REPORT	5TH REPORT	1ST REPORT		2ND REPORT		3RD REPORT		4TH REPORT		5TH REPORT	
					Needs to Improve	Satisfactory	Needs to Improve	Satisfactory	Needs to Improve	Satisfactory	Needs to Improve	Satisfactory	Needs to Improve	Satisfactory
A Child (or) Shows How Year Child is Doing in Different Areas														
READING														
1. Has a desire to improve reading														
2. Has good reading habits														
3. Understands what is read														
4. Has ability to work out new words														
5. Shows an increased desire to read for pleasure														
6. Reads well orally														
7. Reads with speed and accuracy														
WRITING														
1. Writes neatly and legibly in all written work														
2. Is aware of his weaknesses and works to improve them														
SPELLING														
1. Spells correctly words most commonly used in writing														
2. Knows sounds of letters and combinations														
3. Understands meanings and use of words														
ENGLISH														
1. Uses good form in all written work														
2. Expresses ideas well in writing														
3. Expresses ideas well orally														
4. Speaks clearly and correctly														

GROWTH IN CITIZENSHIP (Work Habits and Attitudes)

GROWTH IN CITIZENSHIP (WIDE AREA)	1ST REPORT		2ND REPORT		3RD REPORT	
	Subsidiary	In Improving	Needs to Improve	Subsidiary	In Improving	Needs to Improve
A Child (or) Shows How Year Child is Doing in Different Areas						
1. Listens well to instructions and follows directions						
2. Begins work promptly						
3. Continues work until completed						
4. Uses time wisely						
5. Works well with others						
6. Plans work with others						
7. Attempts to discover and correct mistakes						
8. Works well independently						
9. Is courteous in speech						
10. Is dependable and accepts responsibility						
11. Respects the rights and property of others						
12. Contributes to the planning of activities						
13. Is learning to think critically						
14. Cheerfully accepts group decisions						

FIGURE 6 Fayette County Schools, Lexington, Kentucky, Report to Parents

ARITHMETIC

ST REPORT	1ST REPORT	2ND REPORT	3RD REPORT	4TH REPORT	5TH REPORT
A Check 1/3 Shows How Year Child is Doing in Different Areas	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving
	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory
	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve
	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving
	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory
1. Knows the necessary number facts					
2. Solves problems by reasoning					
3. Is accurate					
4. Can use arithmetic in every-day life					
5. Has acceptable speed					

SOCIAL STUDIES (Geography History Science)

ST REPORT	1ST REPORT	2ND REPORT	3RD REPORT	4TH REPORT	5TH REPORT
A Check 1/3 Shows How Year Child is Doing in Different Areas	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving
	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory
	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve
	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving
	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory
1. Finds and contributes information					
2. Uses maps and reference materials					
3. Reads and listens to current events					
4. Attempts to understand and appreciate our country and others					
5. Appreciates the origin and development of our form of government					
6. Understands the relationship of an individual to human development					
7. Is learning to make observations, experiments and draw conclusions					
8. Is learning to understand resources (human and natural)					
9. Understands and applies science in every-day living					

HEALTH AND SAFETY

ST REPORT	1ST REPORT	2ND REPORT	3RD REPORT	4TH REPORT	5TH REPORT
A Check 1/3 Shows How Year Child is Doing in Different Areas	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving
	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory
	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve
	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving
	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory
1. App has his habits in daily living					
2. Takes pride in personal appearance					
3. Shows evidence of good eating habits					
4. Comes to school rested					
5. Is learning to relax					
6. Feels secure at home and school					
7. Has a happy and cheerful disposition					
8. Observes safety rules					
9. Is developing an interest in hobbies					

THE ARTS

ST REPORT	1ST REPORT	2ND REPORT	3RD REPORT	4TH REPORT	5TH REPORT
A Check 1/3 Shows How Year Child is Doing in Different Areas	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving
	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory
	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve	Needs to Improve
	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving	Is Improving
	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory	Is Satisfactory
ART					
1. Expresses his ideas creatively					
2. Is learning to use various materials					
3. Shows enjoyment and appreciation for color forms and design					
MUSIC					
1. Appreciates and listens to good music					
2. Enjoys singing with the group					

site that item and in an appropriate column to indicate the nature of the evaluation. Columnar headings usually include such qualifying expressions as "Satisfying," "Is Improving," or "Needs to Improve." The report form used in grades three to six of the Fayette County, Kentucky, school is of the type described. The inside pages of the form are shown in Figure 5. In addition to the check lists, the report blank, which is in booklet form, contains space for comments by teachers and parents.

Some of the leading secondary schools have developed report forms similar to those described in the foregoing statements. The new secondary school reports give measures on certain traits other than subject-matter mastery. Since the method of reporting and the elements included in the evaluation are very similar to the elementary school reports which are described above, it is not felt necessary to elaborate further the matter of reporting at the secondary level.

Informal and prearranged conferences held both in the home and the school are commonly used methods of acquainting parents with the growth and behavior of their children. Since the teacher-parent conferences are centered upon the pupil's progress and needs, it is usually best to have both parents present. It is not usually necessary to have the child present and sometimes it is best that he be absent. It is wise to control the length of the conference period carefully. Experience shows that a conference of fifteen or twenty minutes duration is most effective. Adequate professional data which is readily available is a prime requisite for a successful conference.

The advisability of permitting or expecting student teachers to hold conferences alone with parents on such important matters as the growth and behavior of their children is questionable. Certainly, optimum conditions of maturity, skill in conferring, and insight into pupil progress would have to characterize the student teacher and his work before he would be permitted to attempt alone the task of discussing pupils'

achievements, needs, and problems with parents. The student, however, should have the opportunity of being present at conferences which the supervising teacher has with parents and should be expected to be prepared to assist with the conference at any point. The following suggestions which have been used by one group of experienced teachers to improve their conferences are listed as aids to the student of teaching in preparing to confer with parents and in assisting others in conferring with them.

1. Listen to the parents in the conference. Give them the opportunity to talk freely. This will provide data which may not be available otherwise.
2. Complete confidence is required of each participant. Some parents may require the same sympathetic understanding as do children.
3. Be very cautious about making broad generalizations regarding the child; use a professional approach. Do not make it easy to be misquoted.
4. Do not offer any criticisms of outside-of-school practices until the parent is ready to receive and use them in a constructive way.
5. It is unethical to criticize another teacher in discussions with parents. There is a proper place for this action, if it ever becomes necessary.
6. Watch the time element. Do not spend too much time on one point.
7. Be sure each parent is aware of the purposes of the conference.
8. Summarize carefully.
9. Use the conference period to make the parents feel that "your" school is "their" school. Invite co-operation through your attitude and by direct request.
10. In case of unusual criticism of the school or school program, request the parent to be specific. Arrange for another conference period for the parent with the school administrator.
11. Make a written report on the conference. File the material in the child's folder.

12. It is usually better to have shorter conferences and to have them more often.
13. Especially in the first conference it is better not to exert pressure in achieving objectives. Move slowly.
14. Watch your voice, tension level, and humor.
15. Allow the conference situation to develop normally. Within a conference period, objectives are needed but it is better that they not be so distinct as to make you feel that direct teaching of the parents is necessary.
16. Plan a follow-up report to the parents on plans discussed in the conferences.⁴

Bringing parents and teachers together is good practice because the misinterpretation and misunderstanding of the child's status is reduced to a minimum. Emphasis is placed upon the total growth of the child in a much more convincing manner than is possible in written reports. Parents' understanding of their children is improved through the specific helps and aids to progress which are given by the teachers. Through conferences teachers are assisted in developing a better understanding and appreciation of the home situation and background of the child than conventional reports make possible. Face-to-face contacts of parents and teachers provide many avenues for strengthening home and school relationships.

Even though conferences represent excellent means of reporting, they pose some problems such as scheduling, availability of parents for conference, parental readiness to confer, mastery of conference techniques and skills by teachers, and written reports for pupil personnel records. Chief among the disadvantages is the demand of a heavy investment of time by teachers. Because reporting is considered a regular part of the teacher's work, conferences should be included in the teacher's regular day. In most instances, however, the conferences have to be held in addition to the regular teaching load because it is

⁴ Adapted from Harris, Fred E., *Three Persistent Educational Problems: Grading, Promoting, and Reporting to Parents*, Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, 26 (September, 1953), pp. 60-61.

not feasible to hold them during the day at school. If parental conferences could be made a part of the teacher's regular day's work, the conference plan of reporting would be improved.

One of the newer practices in reporting to parents which appears to have promise is the annual summary report. The reports are made at the end of the school term in the form of summaries of the activities, the experiences, the understandings, the knowledge, the skills, the nature of the instructional materials, and the ways of working which were involved in the work with the children during the year. An important feature of some annual summary reports is a listing of the ways in which the program helps to get the children ready for the next year's experiences. In order to illustrate the type of report described in the foregoing statements, an annual summary report is presented in Appendix A of this volume. The report is one used by a fifth grade teacher in Lyndon, Kentucky, and sent to the parents of pupils in her room at the end of the school year.

Traditionally the answer to the question, "How often shall reports be sent to parents?" has been to send them at fixed calendar periods or at other times determined by the divisions of the school year, such as months, six-week periods, or semesters. The conventional practice of reporting periodically usually places pupils and teachers under considerable pressure because of the series of tests and examinations required as bases for computing marks and grades. Teachers are swamped with many papers to be read and grades to compute and, consequently, have little or no time to use the tests for diagnostic and teaching purposes. Moreover, pupils are required to take several tests and examinations in relatively short periods of time with resultant effects of pressure and "cramming."

The practice of issuing all reports at uniform periods is objectionable from the standpoint of mental hygiene. In the first place, under the pressure of conventional "examination weeks," many pupils develop fears and undesirable attitudes

which carry over to life after school. Second, there is little to be gained by the school when everyone in it knows that on the day reports are issued each pupil is taking home a report. Actually, the situation contributes to unwarranted emphasis upon marks and unnecessary comparisons as the inevitable, "What did you get?" is asked on the school bus and at home.

Why reports should all be made at one time and sent to parents at fixed intervals has been questioned by some school staffs. It is felt that the vast majority of children will continue to do acceptable work without the extrinsic stimulation of periodic reporting, providing the educational program is adapted to the pupils for whom it is designed. In such schools reports are sent to parents less frequently than is commonly the practice, and in some instances reports are sent only twice a year—at the end of each semester with the final report of the "annual summary" type described earlier in this section. In addition, there are numerous contacts among teachers, parents, and school officials concerning the educational program and the work of pupils, so that frequent formal written reporting is not necessary. It is believed that, when the activities and experiences provided in the educational program are based upon the problems and needs of the boys and girls who attend the school, the last minute determination of marks becomes less crucial and the need for formal written reporting less frequent.

The student of teaching will develop the proper realization of evaluating, marking, and reporting when he recognizes that the purpose of the school is not to produce standardized educational products and results, that it is not to eliminate pupils with abilities different from those required to master academic abstractions, and that it is not to produce unwholesome competition on any basis and at any price. If on the other hand, the prospective teacher formulates a sound conception of the responsibility of the school as outlined in this volume, his efforts to evaluate and report upon the progress of pupils are likely to be an improvement over conventional practice.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Apply techniques of measurement to the determination of the amount of progress which pupils have made.
2. Recognize that evaluation is concerned with the nature and direction of change in pupils' behavior.
3. Direct evaluation toward determining the extent to which objectives have been achieved.
4. Integrate evaluation with the ongoing processes of the teaching-learning situation.
5. Regard a valid test as one which measures the attainment of specific objectives.
6. Check the curricular validity of a test by inspecting its content in relation to what the pupils are supposed to have learned.
7. Interpret a coefficient of correlation as an expression of relationship between two or more elements.
8. Utilize testing as an important aspect of teaching.
9. Begin the making of a test by determining what the test is expected to measure.
10. Utilize an outline of the purposes of a test and the areas to be included to indicate the relative importance of the different areas, to help in the selection of items, and to prevent undue concentration or relative neglect of some phases.
11. Eliminate vague and indefinite essay-test items by focusing upon securing an adequate sample of the major outcomes desired.
12. Objectify the scoring of essay-type tests by preparing scoring guides which are fairly specific and direct attention to the major outcomes desired.
13. Eliminate poor objective-type test items by avoiding incidentals and focusing upon sampling the pupil's ability to judge, to interpret, and to apply.
14. Endeavor to use tests to reveal in a better way the attainment of sound educational objectives.

15. Interpret test norms as indicators of the success attained by average teaching if the pupils have backgrounds of experience and knowledge comparable to those on whom the test was standardized.
16. Analyze and interpret pupils' individual test scores in light of the abilities, the behavior, and the background of experience of the boys and girls.
17. Use test results to guide your analysis of pupils' needs and the causes of the errors they make.
18. Look upon tests as only one means of evaluating pupils' progress.
19. Utilize various means of evaluating pupil progress including tests, observation, sociometric techniques, case studies, records of different kinds, and conferences with pupils, parents, teachers, and others who know the child.
20. Establish base lines from which pupil progress may be measured.
21. Define the traits of pupils which are to be evaluated in terms of real behavior and which both teacher and pupils can understand and observe.
22. Involve all concerned, including pupils, parents, teachers, and administrators, in the evaluation of pupil progress.
23. Regard evaluation as a means to an end—not an end in itself.
24. Evaluate the progress of pupils continuously during the learning experience.
25. Use marks as vehicles for conveying ideas to parents and pupils concerning school success.
26. Utilize marks in helping the pupil and his parents to discover his strengths and weaknesses.
27. Use a combination of factors and a differentiation of the component elements of changed pupil behavior instead of a single mark to evaluate pupil progress.
28. Base promotion upon factors and processes aimed at determining and providing for pupils' common and individual needs.

29. Be sure that pupils understand why they fail and know what to do to improve and to avoid failure in the future.
30. Regard promotion as dependent upon the pupil's readiness to perform the next step necessary to meet his needs or reach the desired goals.
31. Limit failure to the refusal to perform adequately any reasonable assignment or task upon which you and the child have agreed and which he understands and accepts.
32. Utilize reports to parents to show how well the children are learning to perform the desired activities and to indicate approaches to improvement.
33. Work toward preparing reports to parents for a few pupils at a time but direct your efforts within the framework of the school's program of reporting pupil progress to parents.

PROBLEMS

1. Define measurement and evaluation. Show how the processes differ.
2. List the characteristics of standardized tests which should guide you in selecting them.
3. Select valid and reliable standardized achievement tests for your area of work. Defend your selections.
4. Explain the meaning of a coefficient of correlation. Interpret the validity and reliability coefficients of the tests selected in Problem 3.
5. Prepare essay- and objective-type tests of the areas of work you are teaching.
6. Analyze the common criticisms of essay- and objective-type tests.
7. Select several pupils exhibiting different problems, abilities, interests, and achievements. Establish a base line for each from which progress may be measured. Evaluate the progress each has made by applying the most appropriate methods and techniques.
8. Develop a system of grading and marking that adequately

reveals the progress made by the different pupils of Problem 7.

9. Observe a teacher-parent conference concerned with a pupil's achievements, needs, and problems. Prepare for the conference as if you were to conduct it alone. Be ready to participate if asked. Record the results of the conference for the appropriate records. Formulate a plan of work with the pupil based on the results of the conference.

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ACTION APPROACH

1. *Through what activities can the student teacher become acquainted with the responsibilities of the teaching profession?*
2. *How can the student teacher or the new teacher maintain the "middle-ground" approach in working with fellow staff members?*
3. *What are the professional organizations with which the student teacher should become acquainted? With what professional literature should he be familiar?*
4. *Why should teachers belong to professional organizations?*
5. *How may the student teacher identify himself with the community in which he works?*
6. *How does the new teacher learn to work in partnership with parents?*

XI.

BUILDING

RELATIONSHIPS

TEACHING at its best is a co-operative enterprise in which many persons participate. Not only does the teacher work with pupils, administrators, and parents, but he is also closely identified with fellow teachers in his own school and in other schools as well. In his relationships with each of these groups and the individuals composing the groups, the good teacher strives to gain the confidence and understanding of all concerned. To achieve these ends requires a considerable degree of skill; such skill can be gained by the student teacher through actual participation in experiences involving relationships with others.

71. *Participation in Various Faculty and Student Activities Is a Part of Student Teaching.*

Many student teachers feel that the student-teaching day is completed when the last class bell rings. A realistic look at

actual teaching, however, will reveal that many of the most important activities in the life of the teacher—and the pupil, too—take place after the close of school. Among these activities and responsibilities are such things as faculty meetings, professional association sessions, parent-teacher group meetings, athletic events, social events, and various other types of co-curricular activities. Every one of these is important in the development of good teachers.

From time to time faculty meetings may be of such a nature that those in responsible positions may feel that the presence of student teachers would not be in the best interest of the school; however, it is difficult to conceive of such occasions, and certainly at all other times student teachers should be present. Attendance at the faculty discussions can serve a dual purpose in that the student teacher can learn more about his current school situation, and equally important, he can discern much about the value of faculty meetings in the ongoing program of a school. Moreover, when the student teacher becomes a full-fledged teacher, he is not likely to be confused by faculty meetings and the problems considered during the sessions.

The question often arises regarding the advisability of the student teacher actually participating in faculty discussions. Here again individual school procedures must govern the answer to the question; however, it would seem quite desirable to secure the thinking and the ideas of student teachers on many problems of the school program.

One of the most valuable experiences which is available to student teachers is participating in the supervision of athletic events and other co-curricular activities. Even though the responsibility includes nothing more than collecting tickets at a basketball game or a school dance, the student teacher can learn much about the behavior of his students. He will discover the most effective means of handling difficult situations at the events and in like manner will discover the things which should not be done.

One great temptation which often comes as a result of par-

ticipating in social affairs is to become "a pal" or "a buddy" to the pupils. It is true that such occasions offer the opportunity to be less formal, but it is not considered good taste or good ethics to permit pupils to call the student teacher by his first name or to become overly familiar. It is quite possible to make the pupils feel that you are their friend without becoming too intimate. Once the "bars of respect" are down, the problems of classroom discipline multiply rapidly; therefore, the student teacher should give particular attention to his conduct while he is participating as a faculty member in school activities.

72. *The Student Teacher Learns Administrative-Supervisory-Teaching Relationships.*

One of the most important aspects of teaching and one of the things which will make the greatest difference in the degree of success enjoyed by a teacher is his ability to understand his place in the total personnel organization of the school and system in which he works. These understandings and skills are not developed in isolation from other aspects of teaching, but rather are developed concurrently with many other skills and abilities.

For example, a teacher working on a curriculum development committee will begin to understand more fully the differentiation of responsibilities among school personnel and will begin to see his relationships to all concerned. Perhaps the easiest relationship to see is that of the teacher to his fellow teacher, and yet even this relationship has its difficulties. One administrator recently explained the difficulty of the new teacher by means of what at first seems to be a paradox; however, it has a tremendous amount of truth in it. He said, "The new teacher in working with his fellow teachers must know everything, but at the same time he must be the most humble person in the world."

The more experienced teachers usually feel that because of the recency of preparation the new teacher knows many things

that they themselves do not know; therefore, the new teacher is looked to for certain answers to questions which may be perplexing to all. On the other hand, if the young teacher is too glib with his replies and suggestions, he may be viewed as a "young upstart" and may be relegated to a position bordering on disdain. The middle-ground is difficult to achieve, but the happiness and success of the new teacher will often depend upon the ability to move neither too far in one direction nor the other. Student teachers, through their participation in faculty sessions, can learn the proper procedures of conduct that will help them immeasurably in their first positions. Above all, the student teacher should attempt to avoid cliques that may tend to alienate him from other groups. Education moves forward most effectively on a team-approach basis, and a team cannot operate smoothly when opposing groups are in existence.

It is equally important that student teachers understand the role of the administrator and the supervisor and also the relationships which exist in these instances. The student teacher through his experiences will soon begin to see that the difference between supervision and administration lies in the reason for which an activity is performed.

To attempt to separate supervision and administration on the basis of function alone is a virtual impossibility. Some overlapping of supervisory and administrative functions is inevitable and not altogether undesirable. The same activity may be classified as either supervisory or administrative, depending upon the purpose for which it is being performed. For example, a principal may step into a classroom, look about the room, make a few notes, nod to the teacher, and walk out. Is this activity supervisory or administrative? The answer, of course, depends upon the purpose for which the visit is made. Is the principal checking room conditions such as temperature, ventilation, or janitorial service? Is he checking the control of the teacher over the pupils—the "discipline"—or rating the teacher on a diagnostic scale? One would have to know the

principal's reason for his visit. That he may be criticized for attempting to "supervise" by visiting a classroom in such a manner as has been described is not under consideration. The point is that, unless one knows the purpose to be accomplished by an activity or a function, it is virtually impossible to classify the act as supervisory or administrative.

Supervision is a service particularly concerned with instruction and its improvement. It is directly concerned with teaching and learning and with the factors included in and related to these processes—the teacher, the pupil, the curriculum, the materials of instruction, the socio-physical environment of the situation.

Administration is aimed at the same goals as supervision, but indirectly so. Budget making, building design and construction, and personnel administration, for example, are all intended to improve the educational program and to result in more effective learning on the part of the pupil, but not immediately or directly. In other words, administrative functions are concerned primarily with the material facilities and the operation of the schools; supervisory functions are concerned with improving the learning situation.¹

Many opportunities will be available in good student-teaching situations so that student teachers may participate in salary study committees, curriculum study groups, and other activities of a similar nature which will assist in developing fuller understandings of desirable relationships.

73. *The Prospective Teacher Gets Acquainted with Professional Organizations and Professional Literature.*

Members of the teaching profession are realizing more and more the importance of having pride in and respect for their calling. This attitude necessitates teachers taking a courageous

¹ Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision*, American Book Company, New York, 1953, pp 4-5.

stand in advocating and defending programs which they think are right. It should be realized that the indifference of some members to professional problems has had a negative effect upon the public. The whole concept of educational leadership depends upon the co-operation and participation of teachers in professional affairs. There are many leading thinkers in education who believe that educators have for too long a time abdicated their right to make their maximum contribution to the progress of the school program. While it is true that the schools belong to the people and, therefore, the people have some voice in the management and program of the schools, it is equally important to remember that the citizens are entrusting the schools to a professionally prepared group of teachers, supervisors, and administrators. These professional educators have a sacred obligation to develop the best possible program for the pupils and for our society. Such action cannot result from waiting to be pushed around at the whim of the community, positive action calls for professional leadership and statesmanship which takes the community as a partner in a co-operative enterprise. For these reasons professional organizations are essential to a strong public school program.

As members of the profession increase their knowledge and understanding of the work of other segments of the profession, internal criticism will diminish; when all teachers understand and believe that there is a total school program, the prestige of the total profession will increase.

Perhaps the finest vehicle at the present time for giving student teachers experience in developing a professional attitude and "know-how" is the Future Teachers of America organization, under the sponsorship and direction of the National Education Association.

Through the FTA (not to be confused with AFT, a union organization for teachers) student teachers have the opportunity to learn much about the teaching profession and its responsibilities. Also provided by FTA is the opportunity for student teachers in fields, whether art, English, elementary

education, French, or some other, to come together and compare notes. The sharing of ideas is helpful to all concerned and undoubtedly makes for a more unified profession. While special interest groups are desirable in the different fields of study, it is equally important that we provide an integrated professional organization as well.

At the time student teachers are actually participating in the Future Teachers organization, they should also be learning as much as possible about the other professional organizations for teachers. The National Education Association is the largest and most powerful of these organizations. The NEA has many different affiliated associations, commissions, and departments—each one serving a specific purpose or a particular group. The Department of Elementary Education, the National Council of Teachers of English, and the Council for the Social Studies are examples of the different types of organizations which can serve as vehicles for the in-service development of teachers.

In addition to these national organizations, every state in the United States has its state association of teachers. In many states, membership in its educational association amounts to the total number of persons employed in educational pursuits. At the present date the membership in no state organization is below seven-tenths of the total number of teachers. These state organizations are very important because many of the financial and regulatory policies of concern to teachers are determined at the state level. To supplement the national and state organizations, county or local associations of teachers have been organized. Through all of these channels the new teacher can become better acquainted with the professional problems and advancements which make it possible for the teacher to do a more effective piece of work.

Occasionally the new teacher may ask himself—or he may be asked by another person—"Why should one belong to professional organizations?" Although there are many other reasons which might be advanced, the most important reasons for professional membership are:

1. To assist the teacher to improve teaching conditions, including salary improvement, leave provisions, and so forth.
2. To acquaint new teachers with the research and achievements of other persons in the profession.
3. To provide teachers with an organ of expression.
4. To provide opportunities for better public relations.
5. To make it possible for teachers to have more faith and pride in, and respect for, their profession.

74. *The Student Teacher Identifies Himself with the Community in Which He Works.*

The concept of teaching upon which this book is based would almost demand that the teacher take an active part in community activities and in the determination of the experiences to be provided by the school. The teacher is a link between the school and the community, and he should realize that the community in which a school is located is the center of the world for the youth who attend that school. As such, the community should be the laboratory for the pupil and the teacher. In order that the teacher may understand the community most fully, he should identify himself closely with it. The teacher should be keenly aware of problems of local significance in business, labor, agriculture, and industry, for teacher-community relationships depend to a large degree upon the ability of the teacher to talk the language of the community and its members. Superintendents, principals, and board members are becoming more cognizant of the importance of the new teacher's being an adaptable person who can work effectively with the community and its interests. The teacher who "stands off" and does not participate actively in the affairs of the community is often viewed with suspicion or distrust, and his effectiveness in the classroom and in other school activities is decreased considerably.

The opportunities for building relationships within the community are so numerous that it is difficult to begin to name

them; however, a few possibilities are through the church, welfare activities, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Cubs, Brownies, playground activities, and a host of civic enterprises present in every community. The teacher should capitalize upon every possible opportunity to get acquainted with his community and its folkways, customs, and mores. Through these acquaintanceships, the teacher can find means to utilize the community agencies and resources to the fullest extent in his teaching. Recent studies reveal the lack of use, even by teachers in some of the so-called "better schools," of such agencies as the Soil Conservation Service, the Forestry Service, civic clubs, church organizations, and industrial organizations. Lack of information concerning these services accounts in large measure for the fact that they are not used to the extent that they should be.

Each time a teacher makes an effective contact through a community organization, he strengthens himself as a teacher, adds stature and prestige to his school, and makes a real contribution to the community of which he is a most important part.

75. *Prospective Teachers Learn to Become Working Partners with Parents.*

The parents of the boys and girls in school represent one of the richest sources of aid and assistance which any teacher can have. Through the parents the teacher has a fine opportunity to discover the needs of the boys and girls. Teachers should remain continually alert to possibilities for promoting contacts with parents. When a father or mother calls at the school to enter a child, to ask for information, to make a complaint, or for one of many other reasons, the situation offers an excellent chance to interest the parent in the school program and to make him understand that he is a vital part of that program. The understanding teacher can make a parent a partner in the educational enterprise. Through the building of these relationships,

the school is better enabled to learn the views of the parents and community relative to what the children of the community need and what the school can do to meet the needs.

Parent organizations offer many opportunities for identifying the needs of boys and girls. Improvement of the present work of parent organizations may well begin with consideration of such pertinent questions as: Why do many parents fail to attend meetings of parents and teachers? How can fathers be made more active participants? Should money-making projects remain the prime objective of parents' groups? Surely, there are great possibilities of learning more about pupils and the community through improvement of the work of parent organizations.

It is amazing how blithely the school has neglected the human resources of its parents. Parents have much to offer; they have unusual talents. One father may have worked in the oil fields of Texas; another may be an architect; or another may have served in foreign countries. More important, however, than any of these contributions which the parents can make is the partnership idea, which can be fostered through real co-operation between teachers and parents.

Feelings of co-operation and partnership cannot be one-sided in nature. The parents must be given real reason to feel that the teacher is interested in them and in their children. The teacher who "uses" parents or merely puts on a show of affection will not long have the respect and the co-operation of the parents. To put friendship and co-operation on a sound, working basis, the teacher will find it necessary to try to understand the parents and their interests just as he would the pupils. These understandings will develop after parents and teachers have had the opportunity to visit together in small groups or, better still, individually. The traditional monthly P.T.A. meeting is not sufficient for developing these understandings and friendships. It, therefore, becomes necessary for the teacher to seek other means of promoting the feeling of partnership between parents and teachers. Home visits or small, informal

gatherings in the classroom after school are excellent devices for getting better acquainted with the parents. Such visits also serve to give the parent a clear understanding of the work of the school and the purposes of the particular class in which the child may be for the year.

If teachers expect parents and the community in general to support the educational program, all must share the personal satisfaction involved in the development of that program's purposes, direction, and evaluation. This idea should serve as a basic principle of successful and human relations. From this point of view it should be obvious that the teacher cannot afford to overlook the parents in the planning, direction, and evaluation of the school program. No person in the world is more important to the parent than the child in the school. The teacher can use this interest with excellent results if the time is taken to develop a real partnership with parents. Nothing could be more important to the teacher, the parent, or the pupil.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Participate in faculty meetings.
2. Work in various student activities.
3. Assist in curriculum studies and other in-service activities.
4. Do not become too much of a "buddy" with pupils; such familiarity breeds disciplinary problems.
5. Be modest and unassuming, but not overly shy.
6. Learn the differences which exist in administrative-supervisory-teacher relationships.
7. Develop an understanding of the responsibilities of the teaching profession.
8. Learn about other professions and their obligations and duties.
9. Be an active participant in the Future Teacher organization.
10. Participate in professional organizations which relate to your particular area of interest.

11. Pledge yourself to become an active member of your state education association and other professional organizations.
12. Be a good public-relations person for the teaching profession.
13. Take an active part in community activities and enterprises.
14. Learn to know the parents of the pupils in your classes.
15. Use your full knowledge of human relations in dealing with fellow teachers, parents, and community groups.
16. Select your companions and activities so that you will never have cause to be ashamed.
17. Participate in pupil or parent conferences whenever possible.
18. Visit other schools and communities so that you may broaden your horizons and learn the ways of others.

PROBLEMS

1. Through journals and other sources of information determine the purposes and activities of the following professional organizations:

National Education Association
 Association for Supervision and Curriculum
 Development
 American Association of School Administrators
 Future Teachers of America
 Association for Childhood Education International
 Association for Student Teaching
 Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA

- What is the comparable organization for your particular field of interest? Who are the leaders in the organization?
2. One of the most potent factors in successful teaching is parent co-operation. Develop ideas which could be used in a meeting with the parents of the pupils in your class. What would you tell them about the work which is being

conducted by the group, the methods employed, and other matters of importance?

3. Attend meetings of some in-service groups which may be studying curriculum problems, salary schedules, or some similar topic of interest. Note the procedures employed in the meetings and the relationships which develop. How would you suggest that some of the problems under consideration be attacked and solved?
4. Why do administrators, supervisors, and teachers need to have opportunities to associate in various types of situations? What are some problems which deserve co-operative consideration? How can the problems be solved by groups with different responsibilities?
5. To what organizations or groups in your community would you look for assistance in building better relationships with the schools? Outline a procedure which could be utilized in working toward this objective.

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ACTION APPROACH

1. *With what is the evaluation of student teaching concerned?*
2. *How can the evaluation of student teaching be made functional?*
3. *How can the student learn to isolate and define his problems?*
4. *Should emphasis be placed upon capitalizing upon strengths or correcting weaknesses? Why?*
5. *What are the common growth needs of student teachers? How may they be determined on an individual basis?*
6. *How may the student teacher evaluate himself and his work? The supervising teacher? In each case, how should the criteria be developed?*
7. *How may the student and supervising teachers co-operate in evaluating each other and his work in the student-teaching program?*
8. *How may the student-teaching program be evaluated?*
9. *How may evaluation be made an integral part of the student-teaching program?*
10. *Why should evaluation be continuously and co-operatively conducted?*

EVALUATING
STUDENT
TEACHING

EVALUATION is an integral part of the student-teaching experience. Conceived as a basic function of student teaching, evaluation implies more than objective measurement of student achievement. Too often what is called evaluation of the student-teaching experience is only the measurement of activities performed, skills acquired, and knowledge gained. In reality, evaluation is concerned with the value, nature, and direction of the development of student teachers in relation to

objectives based upon the growth needs of the prospective teachers themselves.

Evaluation includes both the measurement of the actual learning acquired by the student and the achievement he has made in terms of goals that are significant to him and of needs that he recognizes. It is concerned with the value of the learning activities and experiences provided for the student teacher in order to help him achieve the desired objectives. It is related to the total process of the student's development, and it operates to promote his growth. Adequate evaluation of the experience of student teaching requires answers to such questions as: What is happening to the student teacher? To the supervising teacher? To the program itself? What is good procedure in the student-teaching program? How may the effectiveness of the experience be increased? Such a process of evaluation may take different forms. It may include a number of separate elements, a single one, or several in combination. At some points it may involve the entire group while in other stages it may be limited to self-evaluation by individuals. Certainly, effective evaluation demands estimates of the quantity and quality of process and result.

76. Effective Evaluation Is Functional.

Effective evaluation results in the improvement of the student-teaching experience. Actually, there is no other reason for evaluation to be performed than to bring about improved activities and experiences for students of teaching. In order to accomplish its purpose fully, evaluation must become, as has been indicated, an integral part of the student-teaching experience itself.

Evaluating the effectiveness of student teaching poses difficult problems for all those concerned with and involved in the activity. Probably, one of the factors contributing most to the problem is the confusion of the evaluation of student teaching with the rating of the student teacher. Actually, the evaluation

of student teaching involves much more than rating. It is aimed at promoting the growth and development of the prospective teacher through a critical analysis made in terms of recognized criteria of good teaching.

While it seems necessary to evaluate the student teacher if the supervising teacher is actually to function properly and effectively, many students dread the process because they fear the results will jeopardize their chances of successfully completing the experience and of securing a desirable position. The first step, then, in evaluating the effectiveness of the work student teachers perform is to give them security by letting them have a part in formulating the criteria by which they are to be evaluated. Successful supervising teachers report that students become responsible to themselves for the correction and improvement of shortcomings discovered through the process of evaluating their efforts in terms of their own criteria. Thus, self-improvement is more likely to become the central objective than an A grade given by the supervising teacher.

The modern concept of student teaching considers evaluation to be a help to the student. The evaluation process is concerned with the whole student and helps him to discover and understand his strengths and weaknesses. Student teachers want help in solving problems they recognize or those revealed to them. In helping a student with his problems, the excellent supervising teacher capitalizes upon the strong points of the prospective teacher. Especially is the emphasis of strengths effective if the student is one who is inclined to stress his own weaknesses. Placing emphasis upon strengths utilizes the greatest assets of the student in dealing with his problems. The best chance the student has to succeed in teaching is to learn to do better the activities he already does well, or has the ability to perform in an acceptable manner. In emphasizing strengths, weaknesses are not ignored. Rather, they are corrected within the framework of student activity characterized by security, confidence, success, and self-improvement.

Evaluation of student teaching is effective when it is func-

ional. It is functional when it is conceived as an integral part of the student teaching experience, is directed at helping students solve significant problems which they recognize, and is aimed at emphasizing the strengths of students rather than their weaknesses.

77. Student Teaching Is Evaluated in Terms of Objectives.

It has been said that effective evaluation promotes the growth and development of student teachers. Furthermore, the view is taken that if evaluation is functional, growth is considered in relation to the total situation surrounding the student of teaching. Evaluation estimates the nature and value of the contributions made by various phases of the student-teaching experience toward the growth of students in the area of desired goals. Moreover, it points the way toward establishment of future purposes and objectives. The evaluative concept, thus conceived, operates concomitantly with the activity of the students and is directly related to their processes of development.

Broadly conceived, evaluation is concerned with the achievement of the objectives and outcomes attained by students of teaching and, thus, it seeks to determine the nature and direction of the changes occurring during the entire student-teaching experience. More specifically, the purpose of evaluating student teaching is to discover the effectiveness of activities and experiences designed to meet the needs of participants. The growth needs of teachers are discussed in Principle 9, Chapter II, and it is in terms of these that evaluation is made if it is to be effective. The job of teaching, however, is exceedingly complex, and the needs of the students vary considerably. For example, one may need to improve his selection and use of materials of instruction; a second, to learn to work with pupils in groups; another, to determine weaknesses and strengths of pupils; and a fourth, to evaluate the results of teaching. It is not enough that the supervising teacher recog-

nize or even discover the needs of students. In addition, he must help them to recognize their needs themselves if, in fact, they are to improve, because learning develops from felt needs.

In seeking to determine the specific growth needs of students, the successful supervising teacher collects and uses information of many types. A cumulative personnel record for each student serves as an effective and easy way of compiling the facts. The record includes such information as data concerning: personal background, health, marital status, school history, academic achievement, work experience, travel, military experience, experience in working with children, recreation, co-curricular activities, special talents and skills, and training in areas of major teaching interest. A blank form developed at the University of Kentucky for use in collecting information of the type indicated concerning student teachers on the secondary level is included as Appendix B. While the form does not pretend to collect all the information a supervising teacher may desire, it indicates the kind of data considered fundamentally necessary and desirable.

Supervising teachers quite commonly place in the cumulative record the results of tests, interviews, check lists, observations, conferences, and information about the student secured by any other means. The information furnished by the completed record is found to be very helpful by supervising teachers in evaluating the student and his work because it throws light on his needs, his point of view, his reactions in certain situations, and the ways in which he works with boys and girls.

The evaluation of student teaching is ultimately made in light of how nearly the students attain the goals and objectives of the program. Specifically, the purpose of evaluating the students is to determine their needs as these relate to the educational activities which the prospective teachers direct. Mere determination of needs is not complete evaluation, because the process is not finished until future goals are established and ways of reaching them are indicated.

78. Evaluation Is Comprehensive and Co-operative.

Evaluation of an activity as complex as student teaching cannot be adequately evaluated by concentrating upon any single factor or aspect of the program. Merely to observe and appraise the work of the student teacher, important as that factor is, neglects the other important aspects of the total activity, including the nature and kinds of activities and experiences provided, the nature and content of related college work, and the influence of the supervising teacher. Such comprehensive evaluation cannot be adequately done by one individual, or through use of a single method or technique. Actually, it includes self-evaluation by the student teacher of himself and his work, self-evaluation by the supervising teacher of his part in the activity, evaluation of the student teacher by the supervising teacher, and evaluation of the program.

In a modern program of evaluation, emphasis is placed upon self-evaluation by the student teacher. The student may evaluate himself in an informal way or he may resort to rather formal, controlled methods. It seems impracticable to suggest any particular method of self-evaluation because the chief factor has to be the student's desire to evaluate himself. Certainly without a disposition to do so, no such evaluation will likely be made. One way of stimulating the student's desire to participate in self-evaluation is to supply the security referred to in Principle 76, above. The student's feeling of security may be developed by giving him a part in determining the criteria of evaluation, by helping him to see that only through his own efforts can he hope to learn to improve, and by assisting him to use objective instruments such as check lists and rating scales.

In assisting the student of teaching to view his total development, the supervising teacher may well direct the student's attention to his personal-social adjustment and the way in which he is developing as a person. The following state-

The modern concept of the evaluation of student teaching includes much more than an effort to evaluate the prospective teacher as a person. Important as that aspect of evaluation is, attention is directed to other important parts of the teacher's work involving various competencies. It is felt, therefore, that a statement of teaching competence will help to elaborate the function of student teaching and give direction to self-evaluation by the student. Because of their vagueness, such qualities as personality, character, and other attributes, which are usually listed in statements of teaching competence, are not as helpful to the student in making his self-appraisal as what he as a teacher actually does. It is true that there are many allied traits and skills which may be identified with successful teaching, depending upon the teacher and the situation in which he is teaching. The following statement, however, is intended to indicate the kinds of outcomes which may be expected in the behavior of successful teachers.

- I. Provides for the learning of students.
 - A. Uses psychological principles of learning.
 1. Uses effective and continuing motivation.
 - a. Recognizes and makes use of the interests, abilities and needs of students.
 - b. Uses the experiences of students and draws upon life situations and the interests inherent in subject matter.
 2. Provides varied learning experiences.
 3. Uses a variety of teaching procedures effectively.
 4. Plans co-operatively with students.
 - B. Uses principles of child growth and development in learning situations.
 1. Provides for differentiated activities and assignments to meet the needs and abilities of students.
 2. Knows the health (mental and physical) status of his students and adapts activities to their needs.

- C. Maintains an atmosphere in the classroom that is conducive to learning and is marked by a sense of balance between freedom and security.
1. Maintains an effective working situation.
 2. Helps students increasingly to assume leadership and responsibility.
 3. Provides opportunities for students to co-operate and to exercise leadership in the activities of large and small groups.
 4. Provides opportunity for expression of independent critical thought with emphasis on freedom of expression and open-mindedness.
- D. Plans effectively.
1. Aids the students to define worthwhile objectives for large units, daily class work, and special class activities.
 2. Organizes his teaching well by choosing learning experiences, subject matter content, and materials of instruction wisely.
 3. Selects and uses a wide variety of materials of instruction (for example, books, pamphlets, films, bulletin boards, flat pictures, radios, recordings, and so forth).
 4. Uses resources of the school library and the community.
- E. Uses varied teaching procedures.
1. Uses teaching procedures (such as group reporting, discussion, planning with pupils) designed to achieve desired purposes in teaching.
 2. Builds effectively upon the students' participation in class activities.
 3. Develops study skills of students.
 4. Stimulates creative activities of students.
 5. Aids the students to evaluate their own achievements.
- F. Uses diagnostic and remedial procedures effectively.
1. Is familiar with common diagnostic tests in his own and related fields.

2. Constructs, administers, and interprets diagnostic tests.
3. Uses other appropriate diagnostic procedures.
4. Plans and uses remedial procedures.
- G. Uses adequate procedures for evaluating the achievement of students.
 1. Uses informal evaluation procedures (anecdotal record, interview, questionnaire) for collecting and interpreting needed information.
 2. Uses standard achievement tests.
 - a. Is familiar with the more common ones in his field.
 - b. Selects, administers, and interprets the results of tests and uses them in planning.
 3. Uses teacher-made tests.
 - a. Constructs appropriate tests skillfully.
 - b. Interprets the results and uses them in planning.
 4. Keeps accurate and adequate records, such as case studies, cumulative records.
 5. Makes effective reports to students and parents concerning the progress of students in their growth.
- H. Manages the class effectively.
 1. Plans satisfactory routine for the handling of materials, equipment, and supplies.
 2. Uses own and pupils' time effectively.
 3. Is attentive to the physical well-being of students in such matters as heating, lighting, ventilation, and seating.
- II. Counsels and guides students wisely.
 - A. Uses sound psychological principles concerning the growth and development of children in guiding individuals and groups.
 1. Maintains objectivity when dealing with behavior that is aggressive and abnormal.
 2. Is sympathetic with and sensitive to students' personal and social problems, as well as their academic needs.

3. Makes adjustments in the curriculum and other requirements in light of pupils' needs.
 4. Secures sufficient rapport with students so that they come voluntarily for counsel.
 - B. Maintains effective relationships with parents.
 1. Explains the needs, abilities, interests, and problems of the students to their parents.
 2. Obtains co-operation from parents in helping students with their problems.
 - C. Collects and uses significant counseling data.
 1. Administers aptitude and intelligence tests.
 2. Interprets the results of such tests.
 3. Uses results collected in counseling with students.
 4. Keeps research suitable for guidance.
 - D. Uses suitable counseling procedures.
 - E. Maintains appropriate relations with guidance specialist, recognizing their role, and the limitations of his own skill and ability.
- III. Aids students to understand and appreciate our cultural heritage.
- A. Organizes the classroom for effective democratic living.
 - B. Directs individuals and groups in significant life applications of classroom learnings.
 1. Uses subject fields to develop understanding of social, economic, and political problems.
 2. Develops an understanding of the wide significance of various fields of subject matter.
 - C. Draws on his own background of experience to elicit the cultural growth of individuals and groups.
 - D. Helps students to know and to apply in their daily lives the democratic principles which are rooted deep in our historical development.
- IV. Participates effectively in the activities of the school.
- A. Plans co-operatively the means of achieving educational objectives.
 1. Shares effectively in curricular revision and is

professional organizations and participation in their activities.

- D. Assumes responsibility for his own professional growth by planning an appropriate program for professional betterment.

1. Continues professional study through courses, lectures, institute meetings, professional reading, and other activities.

- E. Aids in supervising student teachers and in the orientation and induction of beginning teachers.²

In Principle 9, Chapter II, it is stated that one of the basic growth needs of student teachers is "to learn how to work democratically with others." The ability to establish rapport is essential in working with others and in teaching the habits and skills of democratic living. The following criteria suggest the kinds of questions which the student may use as a basis for evaluating his work in terms of group rapport.

1. Is there evidence that congenial relations exist between the teacher and all members of the group?
2. Do all members of the group exhibit a genuine respect and friendship for their fellow members?
3. Is there evidence that students place the welfare of the group above personal ambitions?
4. Does the teacher make conscious effort to use the techniques and procedures for developing cohesive group rapport?
5. Do all members of the group find security and acceptance within the group?
6. Is there evidence that the teacher accepts all members of the group regardless of their race, religion, age, aptitude, ability, interest, vocational choice, home background, handicaps, sex, or educational plans?
7. Do all members of the group share the responsibility for leadership?

² Adapted from material developed by the California Council on Teacher Education *The Evaluation of Student Teaching*, Twenty-Eighth Annual Year-book of the Association for Student Teaching, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa., 1949, pp 7-11.

- able to evaluate progress toward attaining educational objectives.
 - a. Defines objectives clearly.
 - b. Collects data efficiently and draws appropriate conclusions from them.
 - c. Employs appropriate remedial procedures.
- 2. Shows flexibility in modifying his plans and procedures to fit with those of the entire school.
- B. Assumes his share of the responsibility for school activities.
 - 1. Carries out effectively the administrative responsibilities delegated to him.
 - 2. Participates in planning and administering extracurricular activities.
- C. Maintains harmonious personal relations with his colleagues.
- V. Assists in maintaining good relations between the school and the rest of the community.
 - A. Acquaints himself with available community resources and uses them in classroom activities.
 - B. Obtains the co-operation of parents in school activities.
 - C. Aids in defining and solving community problems.
 - 1. Helps in defining community problems and in developing awareness of them in students and parents.
 - 2. Draws on available and appropriate resources within the school in attacking community problems.
 - D. Takes part in community affairs and projects.
 - E. Observes professional ethics in discussing school problems particularly with lay persons.
- VI. Works on a professional level.
 - A. Gives evidence of the social importance of the profession to parents, students, and other members of the profession.
 - B. Adheres to a professional code of ethics.
 - C. Contributes to the profession by membership in

24. Do members of the group demonstrate capacity for and habits of group discipline?
25. Are students permitted to form groups or subgroups in terms of their interests, purposes, and friendships?
26. Is there evidence that habits of behavior and conduct exhibited within the class group contribute constructively to relationships with other groups?

The foregoing statements of the aspects of the behavior of the teacher as a person, the competencies of a successful teacher, and the elements involved in establishing group rapport may be used in many ways in evaluating the activities and experiences of student teaching. It is suggested that the student utilize the statements fully in a program of self-evaluation in order to determine his strong and weak points and to make plans for improvement. It is further suggested that the supervising teacher consider the statements as he evaluates the work of the student. In addition, the statements may serve as focal points for co-operative evaluation efforts by both the student and the supervising teacher. Finally, the criteria may furnish guidance in the development of various check lists, rating scales, progress charts, and other evaluative instruments and devices.

The following check list is presented as an aid to the student and supervising teachers in their efforts to co-operate in evaluating the student teacher and his work. In using the check list, draw a circle around the number which most nearly designates the quality of the item under consideration. The values of the numbers are: Inferior, 1; Below Average, 2; Average, 3; Above Average, 4; and Superior, 5.

1. *The student teacher as a person:* appearance; dress; speech; general cultural pattern; initiative and resourcefulness; emotional stability; health and vitality; effect on others; warmth and force of personality.

1	2	3	4	5
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8. Is change the result of careful group planning rather than arbitrary directions?
9. Are members of the group showing growth in the capacity for self-direction in relation to co-operative practices?
10. Are the interests of all members of the group recognized when group activities are being planned?
11. Are the goals sought in learning experiences common to all members of the group?
12. Are evaluation procedures developed and shared co-operatively by all members of the group?
13. Do members of the group grow in their ability to understand themselves and others?
14. Is there evidence of increased interest, increased effort, and increased growth as a result of group rapport?
15. Is the morale of the group high?
16. Do all members of the group show evidence of satisfactory emotional adjustment within the group?
17. Is there evidence of growth on the part of all members of the group in the skills of working co-operatively, in sharing in decision making, in working toward group goals, and in the skills of democratic living?
18. Do members of the group show evidence of willingness to utilize intelligence rather than force in the solution of problems?
19. Does the teacher know and understand the personal problems of all members of the group?
20. Is there evidence that members of the group are developing a sympathetic understanding of their classmates?
21. Are students developing attitudes of helpfulness in behalf of others?
22. Is the relationship between the class group and the school as a whole congenial and harmonious?
23. Is there evidence that loyalties to the class group do not inhibit constructive relationships between groups or between members of different groups?

the children; discovers and uses community resources; is aware of problems and is willing to aid in their solution.

1	2	3	4	5
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It is believed that the greatest benefit in using the check list may be derived from the joint efforts of both the student and supervising teachers. Conferences aimed at developing understandings of the items and of their application to specific situations are exceedingly helpful. During a period of time the student and supervising teacher may make separate evaluations of the student and his work. At the end of the evaluation period, they may compare findings, estimate progress and needs for improvement, and decide what further efforts are required. By drawing lines which connect the encircled numbers on the check-list sheet, a profile graph may be made of the status of the student for the period covered by the evaluation. Comparison of a series of such profiles results in a progress chart of the growth and development of the student of teaching.

In order to illustrate still another way in which the evaluation of student teaching may effectively be done on a co-operative basis, a brief description is presented of the plan developed and used by the College of Education at the University of Florida. The plan involves the student teacher, the supervising teacher, and the college co-ordinator of student teaching through a program of seminars and conferences aimed at developing understandings by all concerned and at facilitating the evaluative process. Basically, the plan provides for continuous, co-operative evaluation based on evidence of growth in the following five areas:

1. Meeting personal problems.
2. Understanding the growth and development of children and youth.
3. Using community resources.
4. Planning, developing, and evaluating learning experiences.
5. Developing professional attitudes.

2. *The student teacher as a scholar:* in broad general fields; in the effectiveness of his control of his area of subject-matter specialization; in the ability to secure further needed mastery; in his command of resources.

1	2	3	4	5
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3. *The student teacher as a classroom teacher:* his concept of teaching; his understanding of methods and procedures as applied in teaching; his competency in planning; his use of materials; his relation with children; his understanding of child growth and development, and his ability to use such understanding in the teaching situation; his understanding and use of the laws of learning and of motivation; his skill in using wise methods of evaluation; his operational level of the understanding and the use of democratic principles.

1	2	3	4	5
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4. *The student teacher as a guide and counselor:* sympathetic understanding of children; ability to care for children's needs; ability to collect and analyze data regarding children; ability to establish good working relations with parents; ability to gain and respect children's confidence.

1	2	3	4	5
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5. *The student teacher as a manager:* of routine, of co-curricular activities, of the classroom to the extent that the emotional climate of the classroom is conducive to effective learning and pleasant living.

1	2	3	4	5
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6. *The student teacher as a member of the profession:* practices a sound code of ethical behavior, is interested in and values the social significance of the profession; assumes responsibility for his professional growth through reading, observation, and other avenues for continued growth.

1	2	3	4	5
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7. *The student teacher as a member of the community:* is concerned with the community setting which affects

he works, and reacting to his suggestions in terms of what he does and the impressions he makes upon them. Certainly, he will be stronger if he knows his own strengths and weaknesses. Thus, it is highly desirable and most essential that he review periodically his actual work with students. The criteria employed should cover, insofar as possible, all phases of the supervising teacher's activity, and provide for the collection of a wide variety of evidence.

The following factors are some to which the supervising teacher will likely give attention in evaluating himself:

1. Do I give the student teachers a share in deciding what to do?
2. How general is the participation of student teachers in the formulation of policies which affect them?
3. Does participation of the student teachers in group work result in desirable action?
4. Am I giving enough attention to growth in the techniques of co-operative planning and action?
5. Do I let student teachers know in advance about changes which affect them?
6. How has the "our" attitude been developed?
7. Have I been successful in convincing students of the importance of their student-teaching experiences?
8. Have I used praise discriminatingly?
9. In what ways have I attempted to discover and to capitalize upon the strengths of student teachers?
10. Do I know of special work the students of teaching are doing?
11. Do I let student teachers know how they are getting along?
12. Have students of teaching been made to feel professionally secure?
13. Do student teachers desire to improve enough to try different methods?
14. How have I helped students of teaching to become self-directive?
15. Am I more likely to begin working with student teachers on their problems or on my own?

Each of the areas is concisely described in terms of those factors which are considered to be desirable in the teaching-learning process. The descriptions contain specific situations facing the student in his teaching and may be used by him and the supervising teacher to measure the growth of the student of teaching.

Through self-evaluation by the student, evaluation by the supervising teacher, and conferences between the student and supervising teachers progress records are made of the growth of the student of teaching. The progress records are based upon the significant evidences of growth exhibited by the student teacher in the five areas listed above. The most significant evidences of growth are recorded as "achievements," and the areas in which there is need for improvement are listed as "needs." Both achievements and needs are recorded under each of the five areas of evaluation. The progress records are prepared bimonthly during the course of the student teaching experience. The records serve as the basis for a terminal evaluation of the work of the student, which results from a conference among the college co-ordinator and the student and supervising teachers.*

In a teacher-learning situation, the teacher is the most important element aside from the learner himself. Student teaching is essentially a teaching-learning situation in which the "teacher" is the supervising teacher and the "learner" is the student teacher. Thus, the supervising teacher is in reality a "teacher of teachers" and it is, therefore, highly essential that he function on a high level of effectiveness in directing the experiences of the student of teaching.

Only through an efficient process of evaluation can the effectiveness of the supervising teacher be analyzed and increased. Obviously, he is constantly being evaluated even though he may not realize it. Each day the students of teaching are appraising him, observing his attitude, watching how

* Adapted from *Handbook on Evaluation* developed by the College of Education, University of Florida, 1951, and used by special permission.

supervising teacher by him and by the student requires a high degree of maturity and objectivity on the part of both persons, it is believed that the value of student teaching is centered in the way the students feel about it and the changes it makes in their behavior. Thus, it is important for the supervising teacher to secure the reaction of the student teacher to the activities which the former performs and to the way in which he does them.

Evaluation of the program of student teaching is as much a part of the total experience as is participation in the various activities of the program. Only those persons who have co-operatively formulated the purposes of a program of student teaching can truly evaluate the progress they have made toward attaining the stated objectives. Evaluation, then, of the total program should be viewed by the student teacher, the supervising teacher, and the college director of student teaching as a co-operative and constructive procedure aimed at improvement of the various activities and experiences included in the whole activity of student teaching.

The plan of program evaluation currently in use in the area of secondary student teaching at the College of Education, University of Kentucky, illustrates the main features of total activity evaluation indicated in the foregoing statement. Those persons participating in the evaluation include the student teachers, the college directors, and co-ordinators of student teaching, the college instructors in related methods courses and seminars, and the supervising teachers. Basically the plan attempts to evaluate the program from two aspects. One attempt is aimed at the evaluation of the methods courses and seminars, while the other is directed at the nature and value of the actual experiences in the laboratory schools. Actually, the two attempts are not as unrelated and separate as the following written descriptions may indicate.

The methods courses and seminars are evaluated in terms of evidences of growth based upon the following criteria, which are co-operatively formulated by the persons mentioned above:

16. Do I recognize and provide for differences among student teachers and their needs?
17. Are student teachers given a chance to save face?
18. Do I recognize the uniqueness of student teachers' personalities?
19. Do I recognize that there is no universally successful teaching technique?
20. Do I maintain self-control in the face of tactless remarks?
21. Do I admit mistakes when I am shown to be wrong?
22. Do I get the facts concerning an error and weigh and decide them before taking action?
23. Are student teachers properly oriented to the school, the community, and the job to which they are assigned?
24. Do all concerned share in the evaluation of the program of student teaching?
25. How can I help student teachers to do better those things they already do well?
26. Do I encourage student teachers to experiment with ways of working with boys and girls that are different from my own methods? *

In addition to making frequent individual self-evaluations, it is important for the supervising teacher to know what the student teachers think about him and his work. It is strongly suggested, therefore, that the supervising teacher secure the reactions of the student teachers in terms of the criteria listed above. This may be done in one of several ways. For example, the student may use the criteria as a check list and apply them to the activities of the supervising teacher, revealing the results to him in a conference. On the other hand, the student and supervising teachers may use the criteria together in a conference aimed at securing the thinking of the student concerning the work of the supervising teacher. While it is recognized that the co-operative evaluation of the work of the

* Adapted from Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision*, American Book Company, New York, 1953, pp. 259-260

4. Co-curricular activities.
5. Observations and visitations.
6. Records.
7. Audio-visual materials and equipment.
8. Community resources.
9. School personnel.
10. Conferences.
11. Evaluation.

Each of the classifications is expanded into its detailed component activities and experiences. The student is then asked to list on a prepared form the most helpful experiences in each category and to state why he believes the items listed are valuable and significant. The reports are then compiled by laboratory schools and studied by the group of students, college personnel, and supervising teachers with a view toward evaluating the nature and value of the kinds of experiences considered to be significant.

Efforts of the personnel involved in the student-teaching program are directed toward relating the two aspects of the evaluation procedure. It is believed that the character of the whole program is improved when the activities and experiences provided in its various phases are aimed and directed at the student's attainment of the desired goals. That objective is best achieved through a redevelopment of the program based upon evaluation of all its aspects.

The basic elements of effective, comprehensive, and co-operative evaluation of the student-teaching experience include agreement upon the goals to be established as evaluative criteria, establishment of reference points or base lines from which to measure improvement, participation of all concerned in individual and co-operative efforts of evaluation, and determination of the next steps to be taken in revising the total activity according to the evaluation of it.

1. The activities of the group are related to the needs of its members.
2. The group identifies and selects the problems studied.
3. Members of the group communicate with each other.
4. The group utilizes available resource materials.
5. Members of the group have a desirable attitude of tolerance for the opinions of others.
6. The capabilities of each group member are utilized.
7. Members of the group feel free to express differences of opinion.
8. All members of the group volunteer to participate in activities.
9. Members of the group function as a team in attacking problems.
10. Members of the group accept responsibilities to make the group function adequately.
11. The group carries accepted responsibilities to satisfactory conclusions.
12. Original thinking is encouraged and takes place.
13. The social and emotional atmosphere is conducive to group work.

The criteria are applied by student teachers in all subject fields, such as English, social studies, mathematics, and science. After the subgroups have completed their evaluations in the different fields, the results are reported to, and studied by, the total group of students, directors, co-ordinators, instructors, and supervising teachers. Terminal evaluations of the methods courses and seminars are made through the co-operative action of those concerned.

The second aspect of the evaluation concerns the appraisal of the total professional laboratory experiences. The students, college personnel concerned with student teaching, and supervising teachers have formulated eleven classifications of experience as follows:

1. Professional meetings.
2. Instruction.
3. Classroom routine.

ACTION POINTERS

1. Regard evaluation of student teaching as being concerned with the quantity and quality of process and result.
2. Aim evaluation of student teaching at promoting your growth and development through a critical analysis made in terms of recognized criteria of good teaching.
3. Participate, as a student teacher, in the formulation of the criteria by which you are to be evaluated. You will experience security and freedom from the fear of evaluation.
4. Concentrate upon isolating and defining your problems as a student teacher. Do not be afraid to recognize the problems you have discovered.
5. Search for your strengths and your weaknesses as a teacher by analyzing carefully yourself and your work.
6. Attempt to correct your weaknesses as a teacher but learn to capitalize upon your strengths.
7. Direct your efforts at evaluation to the total situation surrounding you and your student teaching experience, including yourself, the nature and kinds of activities and experiences provided, the nature and content of related college work, and the supervising teacher.
8. Evaluate the student-teaching experience in terms of the objectives and outcomes to be attained.
9. Include in the total evaluative effort: self-evaluation by the student teacher of himself and his work, self-evaluation by the supervising teacher of his part in the activity, evaluation of the student by the supervising teacher, and evaluation of the program.
10. Evaluate more than yourself as a person—include various competencies as a teacher.
11. Develop various check lists, rating scales, progress charts, and other instruments and devices for evaluating various aspects of student teaching.
12. Compare the results of the self-evaluation of you and your

79. *Evaluation Is a Continuous Process.*

Evaluation of student teaching in the past has too often been limited to concentrated efforts applied at intervals during the experience or at its termination. In such an evaluative process, the appraisal of the student and his work was spasmodic, and the evaluation of the activities and experiences provided for him was periodic. By contrast, the modern concept of evaluation views it as being continuous in its efforts to improve the quality, character, and direction of the total student-teaching activity. The view is held that, if evaluation is actually to improve student teaching and if the improvement is to have lasting value, then continuous efforts must be made to determine the needs to be met and the extent to which they are being met. And provisions have then to be provided for meeting them. Gradual and continuous change is a desirable characteristic of an effectively developing program of student teaching. Although the main aspects of the program *may* remain essentially unchanged over a period of time, the activities, experiences, and services provided and the techniques and procedures employed must be continually adapted to changing needs and conditions.

By its very nature the evaluative process is an integral part of the student-teaching activity. Merely casual reflection reveals the fact that all persons involved in the activity, including the student and supervising teachers and the college personnel, actually evaluate each other and the program from the first day the experience of student teaching begins. Since it is obvious that all concerned are to be evaluated in some fashion whether or not they like it or wish it, it would be unrealistic to do anything other than to make the evaluation as effective as possible. The process of evaluation will be effective when all concerned co-operate to remain continuously sensitive to the needs to be met and to the most effectual ways of meeting them.

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work as a student teacher with the findings of the supervising teacher.

13. Exert efforts to evaluate the program of student teaching by including all those persons who participate in it.
14. Establish base lines from which to measure improvement.
15. Include in the process of evaluation the determination of the next steps to be taken toward improvement.
16. Begin the process of evaluation at the start of the student teaching experience and continue the evaluative efforts until the activity is finished.

PROBLEMS

1. Formulate a concept of the evaluation of student teaching.
2. List the criteria by which the student-teaching experience should be evaluated. Review these with the supervising teacher.
3. As a student teacher, evaluate yourself and your work in terms of the criteria listed in Problem 2 and compare your results with the evaluation made by the supervising teacher. Plan a program of activity based upon the results of the co-operative evaluation.
4. Formulate a plan for capitalizing upon some strengths which you as a student teacher recognize you possess.
5. In broad outline indicate the kinds of outcomes which should be expected in the behavior of successful teachers.
6. Indicate in broad outline the criteria which the student may use as a basis for evaluating his work in terms of group rapport.
7. Indicate in broad outline the criteria which the supervising teacher should use to evaluate his work in the student-teaching program.
8. List the criteria which may be used to evaluate the student-teaching program.

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The Annual Summary Report to Parents

During the year each child's progress has been measured according to his or her ability, maturity, and effort for the required task.

Teacher

I. During the year each child participated in some way in the following:

A. Social Life

1. Experiences in "getting along with others."
 - a. Worked on many committees.
 - b. Ate with different groups.
 - c. Chose groups to sit and work with sometimes.
 - d. Participated in games.
 - e. Co-operated with the Student Council.
2. Classes in human relations.
3. Made booklets and wrote about experiences in getting along with others.
4. Worked toward being "honest with one's self."
5. Organized a stamp club.
 - a. Anyone interested in starting a stamp collection could join.

B. Safety

1. Mr. _____ visited and talked with the class.
2. Secured and read free literature on safety.
3. Saw films.
4. Co-operated in fire drills.
5. Learned safety songs in music classes.
6. Worked on safety in art classes.
7. Worked with the Student Council and Patrol.
8. Observed safety rules.
9. Cleaned playground.

C. Field Trips

1. To firehouse in Lyndon.
2. To a fort in Lyndon made by boys in the class.
3. To a meat packing house.

Appendix A

THE ANNUAL SUMMARY REPORT TO PARENTS ¹

THE FOLLOWING annual summary report is presented to illustrate one of the newer practices in reporting pupil progress to parents. It is not presented for the purpose of illustrating a *model* school program of activities and experiences at the fifth grade level, because there is no unanimity of opinion about the content of such a program. The intention is rather to show the nature of a summary-type report to parents which gives them a basis for understanding the kind of educational program the school is providing for their children.

FIFTH GRADE—LYNDON, KENTUCKY REPORT TO PARENTS

Dear Mr. and Mrs. _____:

This report is the work of Bobby, his class, and teacher.

The fifth grade had an original enrollment of 36. There were 5 later enrollments and 4 withdrawals. The girls number 18 and the boys, 19.

Several different techniques have been used during the year to bring about a desirable social climate. Working on different committees, being responsible to the group for a given task, and playing together have helped to bring about a good group spirit.

¹ Report used by Mrs. Fanny Lowe, teacher, Lyndon, Kentucky, in 1952-1953. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, 26 (September, 1953), pp 61-66.

6. Careful handling of dishes.
7. Committees worked with each group to establish habits of cleanliness.
8. Worked on being quiet in lunchroom.
9. New foods.

G. Science

1. Did experiments:
 - a. Fire.
 - b. Electricity.
 - c. Plants.
 - d. Magnets.
 - e. Water wheel—wheel-and-axle pulleys.
2. Aquarium.
 - a. Tadpole.
 - b. Goldfish.
3. Terrarium.
 - a. Plants.
4. Vivarium,
5. Calendar (recorded weather).
6. Weather books,
7. Potted plants for mothers.

H. The Language Arts

1. Reading has been done in groups and individually. Each child has read at his own level and rate of speed. Some "choral reading" has been done this year. This provides opportunity for expression by every child. Additional reading experiences were provided through the school library. The children were given competent guidance by the librarian in the selection of books. About 2,475 books were made available to the children (many of these were made available through the Public Library).
 - a. The books we have read are listed below. The ones your child completed are checked. Please note these!
 - (1) All Aboard for Storyland
 - (2) Sails Set for Treasure Land
 - (3) Looking Forward
 - (4) Days and Deeds

4. To the stockyards.
5. To Lebanon Junction on the train.
6. A trip to Frankfort, Kentucky, is planned—we shall visit:
 - a. The new Capitol.
 - b. The Old Capitol.
 - c. The Governor's Mansion.
 - d. The new State Building.
 - e. Liberty Hall.
 - f. University of Kentucky Experiment Farm.

D. Letter Writing

1. Letters to Mr. _____.
 - a. To thank him for our visit to the firehouse.
2. "Get-well" notes.
3. Thank-you letters.
4. Letters to Mr. _____ from the Stamp Club.
5. Invitations to mothers for P.T.A. meetings.
6. Mother's Day letters.
7. Other practice letters.

E. Entertaining (in our own room)

1. Christmas party.
2. Television party for the Inauguration.
 - a. The girls entertained the boys.
3. A Valentine party.
 - a. Jimmy Felts put on a "Magic Show."
4. An Easter fair.
 - a. Other rooms visited us.
5. Mother's Day party for mothers.
 - a. Twenty-three mothers came.

F. Lunchroom Experiences

1. Eating with one group for six weeks then changing to another group for social rapport.
2. Table manners.
3. Washing hands before eating.
4. Desirable conversation.
5. Obeying, or carrying out, suggestions offered by the Student Council.

- a. Sing in groups.
- b. Take part in glee club.
- c. Take part in orchestra.
- d. Listen to records.
- e. Do rhythm games.

K. Art Experiences

1. The class has made several friezes in connection with units of work. They have worked with the following media:
 - a. Finger paint.
 - b. Chalk.
 - c. Crayons.
 - d. Papier-mâché.
 - e. Paints.
 - f. Cut paper.
2. A calendar was made by a different committee for each month.
3. Several posters and pictures were made to illustrate books which were read.
4. Had several interesting exhibits.
5. Made a television show—correlating social studies with art.

L. Physical Education

1. Twenty minutes each day was given to rhythm, games, organization, and caring for play materials. During this period the children have enjoyed:
 - a. Relay races.
 - b. Singing games.
 - c. Ball games.
 - d. Group games.
 - (1) Many new games were learned.
 - e. Skills.
 - (1) Rope jumping.
 - (2) Jacks.
 - (3) Ball handling and throwing.
 - f. Tumbling.

- (5) Frontiers Old and New
- (6) On to Adventure
- (7) Merry Hearts and Bold
- (8) Engine Whistles
- (9) Child Story Reader
- b. Other supplementary books were read by many children. The group, as a whole, shows more than average progress in reading.
- 2. Handwriting.
 - a. Every lesson was a writing lesson. Charts for correct writing were made from which each child evaluated his or her own writing.
- 3. Spelling.
 - a. Spelling graphs were kept.
 - b. Studied incidental words which were needed for other subjects.
 - c. Studied the root word, the suffix, and the prefix.
- 4. Language Experiences.
 - a. Much oral language.
 - b. Original cards for mothers.
 - c. Letter writing.
 - d. Worked some with formal grammar.
 - e. Did both oral and written reports from supplementary reading.

I. Number Experiences

- 1. Writing numbers and dates.
 - 2. Problems concerning our trips and experiences.
 - 3. Use of measurements.
 - 4. Addition.
 - 5. Subtraction.
 - 6. Division.
 - 7. Multiplication.
 - 8. Fractions.
- (Each of these was made meaningful through relation to social activities)

J. Music

- 1. There has been a special teacher for public school music and another for instrumental music. The children have had opportunities to:

- a. Sing in groups.
- b. Take part in glee club.
- c. Take part in orchestra.
- d. Listen to records.
- e. Do rhythm games.

K. Art Experiences

1. The class has made several friezes in connection with units of work. They have worked with the following media:
 - a. Finger paint.
 - b. Chalk.
 - c. Crayons.
 - d. Papier-mâché.
 - e. Paints.
 - f. Cut paper.
2. A calendar was made by a different committee for each month.
3. Several posters and pictures were made to illustrate books which were read.
4. Had several interesting exhibits.
5. Made a television show—correlating social studies with art.

L. Physical Education

1. Twenty minutes each day was given to rhythm, games, organization, and caring for play materials. During this period the children have enjoyed:
 - a. Relay races.
 - b. Singing games.
 - c. Ball games.
 - d. Group games.
 - (1) Many new games were learned.
 - e. Skills.
 - (1) Rope jumping.
 - (2) Jacks.
 - (3) Ball handling and throwing.
 - f. Tumbling.

M. Social Studies

1. Have studied the history and geography of the Americas.
 - a. Did research reading.
 - b. Made maps.
 - c. Saw many films.
 - d. Had panel and group discussions.
 - e. Had exhibits.
 - f. Had free material always available.
 - g. Made a television show of the early explorers.
 - h. Had news reports each day.

N. Educational Status

1. The group is above average in most respects. The members show talent in music and they like to sing. Many of them play some instrument. A few of the group seem to be quite talented in art. Many of them have yet to learn the art of "listening."

Appendix B

STUDENT TEACHER INFORMATION BLANK

STUDENT TEACHER INFORMATION BLANK ¹

College of Education, University of Kentucky
During _____ Semester, 195____

The information you provide will be used to help your supervising teacher become better acquainted with you and guide you during your student teaching activities. Please answer each of the questions as completely and as accurately as possible. You may omit any of the questions you desire to leave unanswered.

1. FULL NAME _____

Last
First
Middle Initial
2. PERMANENT ADDRESS _____ PHONE _____

Street
City
State
3. UNIVERSITY ADDRESS _____ PHONE _____

Street
City
State
4. PLACE OF BIRTH _____ DATE OF BIRTH _____

City or County
State
5. CHECK THE TYPE OF COMMUNITY IN WHICH YOU HAVE LIVED THE MAJOR PART OF YOUR LIFE. Rural _____; Village _____; Small City _____; Large City _____
6. MARITAL STATUS _____ If Married, Number of Children _____
7. FATHER'S NAME IN FULL _____ Place of Birth _____

a. Living or Deceased
State or County

b. Father's Education

c. Father's Occupation

¹ The blank is used with student teachers on the secondary level.

8. MOTHER'S NAME IN FULL _____
 a. Living or Deceased _____ Place of Birth _____
 State or County

b. Mother's Education _____

c. Mother's Occupation _____

9. NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN YOUR FAMILY OLDER THAN YOU: _____

Boys

Girls

Number Younger: _____

Boys

Girls

10. ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL FROM WHICH YOU GRADUATED, AND COLLEGES OR UNIVERSITIES ATTENDED:

Name of Institution

Location

Dates

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

11. RECREATION: *Underline* each of the following in which you really like to participate. Reading, meeting and conversing with people, art, music, dancing, movies, golf, tennis, fishing, riding, hiking, skating, swimming, hunting, camping, boating, motor-ing, card playing, chess, photography, collections or other hobbies. Others _____

12. HAVE YOU EARNED ANY MONEY SINCE YOU BEGAN YOUR COLLEGE WORK? Yes _____ No _____
 If so, how _____

13. WHAT HAVE YOU DONE DURING THE PAST TWO SUMMER VACATIONS THAT HAS BEEN OF VALUE TO YOU?

14. LIST BELOW THE EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN WHICH YOU HAVE PARTICIPATED WHILE IN COLLEGE

15. WHAT PROFESSIONS OR OCCUPATIONS OTHER THAN TEACHING ARE YOU CONSIDERING? _____

16. WHAT MAGAZINES DO YOU READ REGULARLY?

a. _____ b. _____ c. _____

17. WHAT NEWSPAPERS DO YOU READ REGULARLY?

a. _____ b. _____ c. _____

18. WHAT BOOKS (OTHER THAN TEXTBOOKS) HAVE YOU READ IN THE LAST YEAR?

19. EXPERIENCES IN WORKING WITH CHILDREN—other than in university education courses:

Situation	Length of Time	Place
-----------	----------------	-------

20. WHY DO YOU WANT TO TEACH? _____

21. TRAVEL EXPERIENCES:

Description	Time
-------------	------

22. MILITARY EXPERIENCES _____

23. CHECK YOUR TALENTS OR SKILLS WHICH YOU BELIEVE MAY BE ASSETS IN YOUR STUDENT TEACHING:

_____ Piano	_____ First Aid	_____ Library Science
_____ Singing	_____ Home Nursing	_____ Nature Study
_____ Violin	_____ Cooking	_____ Journalism
_____ Rhythm Work	_____ Sewing	_____ Typing
_____ Driving Car	_____ Crafts	_____ Storytelling
_____ Speech	_____ Industrial Arts	

____ Operating
Visual
Equipment

____ Leading Rec-
reational
Activities

List any others _____

- 24 LIST ANY SPECIAL RECOGNITIONS YOU HAVE RECEIVED FOR EXCELLENCE IN SCHOOL WORK, SUCH AS HONORS, PRIZES, OR SCHOLARSHIPS

- 25 LIST THE COURSES WHICH YOU HAVE COMPLETED WITH A PASSING MARK

Major Teaching Field
Course Title Credit Hours

Second Major or Minor
Teaching Field
Course Title Credit Hours

Appendix C

CODE OF ETHICS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION¹

WE, THE Members of the National Education Association of the United States, hold these truths to be self-evident—

- that the primary purpose of education in the United States is to develop citizens who will safeguard, strengthen, and improve the democracy obtained thru a representative government,
- that the achievement of effective democracy in all aspects of American life and the maintenance of our national ideals depend upon making acceptable educational opportunities available to all,
- that the quality of education reflects the ideals, motives, preparation, and conduct of the members of the teaching profession;
- that whoever chooses teaching as a career assumes the obligation to conduct himself in accordance with the ideals of the profession.

¹ NEA Handbook for Local and National Associations, 1954-1955, pp 361-363.

As a guide for the teaching profession, the members of the National Education Association have adopted this code of professional ethics. Since all teachers should be members of a united profession, the basic principles herein enumerated apply to all persons engaged in the professional aspects of education—elementary, secondary, and collegiate.

First Principle The primary obligation of the teaching profession is to guide children, youth, and adults in the pursuit of knowledge and skills, to prepare them in the ways of democracy, and to help them to become happy, useful, self-supporting citizens. The ultimate strength of the nation lies in the social responsibility, economic competence, and moral strength of the individual American.

In fulfilling the obligations of this first principle the teacher will—

- 1 Deal justly and impartially with students regardless of their physical, mental, emotional, political, economic, social, racial, or religious characteristics
- 2 Recognize the differences among students and seek to meet their individual needs
- 3 Encourage students to formulate and work for high individual goals in the development of their physical, intellectual, creative, and spiritual endowments
- 4 Aid students to develop an understanding and appreciation not only of the opportunities and benefits of American democracy but also of their obligations to it.
- 5 Respect the right of every student to have confidential information about himself withheld except when its release is to authorized agencies or is required by law.
- 6 Accept no remuneration for tutoring except in accordance with approved policies of the governing board

Second Principle The members of the teaching profession share with parents the task of shaping each student's purposes and acts toward socially acceptable ends. The effectiveness of many methods of teaching is dependent upon co operative relationships with the home.

In fulfilling the obligations of this second principle the teacher will—

- 1 Respect the basic responsibility of parents for their children
- 2 Seek to establish friendly and co operative relationships with the home

3. Help to increase the student's confidence in his own home and avoid disparaging remarks which might undermine that confidence.
4. Provide parents with information that will serve the best interests of their children, and be discreet with information received from parents.
5. Keep parents informed about the progress of their children as interpreted in terms of the purposes of the school.

Third Principle: The teaching profession occupies a position of public trust involving not only the individual teacher's personal conduct, but also the interaction of the school and the community. Education is most effective when these many relationships operate in a friendly, co-operative, and constructive manner.

In fulfilling the obligations of this third principle the teacher will—

1. Adhere to any reasonable pattern of behavior accepted by the community for professional persons.
2. Perform the duties of citizenship, and participate in community activities with due consideration for his obligations to his students, his family, and himself.
3. Discuss controversial issues from an objective point of view, thereby keeping his class free from partisan opinions.
4. Recognize that the public schools belong to the people of the community, encourage lay participation in shaping the purposes of the school, and strive to keep the public informed of the educational program which is being provided.
5. Respect the community in which he is employed and be loyal to the school system, community, state, and nation.
6. Work to improve education in the community and to strengthen the community's moral, spiritual, and intellectual life.

Fourth Principle: The members of the teaching profession have inescapable obligations with respect to employment. These obligations are nearly always shared employer-employee responsibilities based upon mutual respect and good faith.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fourth principle the teacher will—

1. Conduct professional business thru the proper channels.
2. Refrain from discussing confidential and official information with unauthorized persons.

3. Apply for employment on the basis of competence only, and avoid asking for a specific position known to be filled by another teacher.
4. Seek employment in a professional manner, avoiding such practices as the indiscriminate distribution of applications.
5. Refuse to accept a position when the vacancy has been created through unprofessional activity or pending controversy over professional policy or the application of unjust personnel practices and procedures.
6. Adhere to the conditions of a contract until service thereunder has been performed, the contract has been terminated by mutual consent, or the contract has otherwise been legally terminated.
7. Give and expect due notice before a change of position is to be made.
8. Be fair in all recommendations that are given concerning the work of other teachers.
9. Accept no compensation from producers of instructional supplies when one's recommendations affect the local purchase or use of such teaching aids.
10. Engage in no gainful employment, outside of his contract, where the employment affects adversely his professional status or impairs his standing with students, associates, and the community.
11. Co-operate in the development of school policies and assume one's professional obligations thereby incurred.
12. Accept one's obligation to the employing board for maintaining a professional level of service.

Fifth Principle: The teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among all teachers. Community support and respect are influenced by the standards of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching and other teachers.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fifth principle the teacher will—

1. Deal with other members of the profession in the same manner as he himself wishes to be treated.
2. Stand by other teachers who have acted on his behalf and at his request.

3. Speak constructively of other teachers, but report honestly to responsible persons in matters involving the welfare of students, the school system, and the profession.
4. Maintain active membership in professional organizations and, thru participation, strive to attain the objectives that justify such organized groups.
5. Seek to make professional growth continuous by such procedures as study, research, travel, conferences, and attendance at professional meetings.
6. Make the teaching profession so attractive in ideals and practices that sincere and able young people will want to enter it.

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